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AN HISTORICAL AND MORAL ESSAY ON HUNTING:

Illuſtrative of the FRONTISPIECE *to this Volume.*

——But if the Sylvan youth,
Whoſe fervent blood boils into violence,
Muſt have the chaſe; behold, deſpiſing flight,
The rous'd-up lion, reſolute, and ſlow,
Advancing full on the portended ſpear.——
See the grim wolf; on him his ſhaggy foe
Vindictive fix, and let the ruffian die.
Or, growling horrid, as the brindled boar
Grins fell deſtruction, to the monſter's heart
Let the dart lighten from the nervous arm.
Theſe Britain knows not; give, ye Britons, then
Your ſportive fury, pityleſs, to pour
Looſe on the nightly robber of the fold:
Him, from his craggy winding haunts unearth'd,
Let all the thunder of the chaſe purſue. THOMSON.

IT appears from ſacred hiſtory, that *Hunting* was conſidered as a right devolved, or made over to man; and the following ages appear to have been of the ſame ſentiment. Accordingly we find, that among the more civilized nations it made one of their diverſions; and as to the wilder and more barbarous, it ſerved them with food and neceſſaries. The Roman juriſprudence, which was formed on the manners of the firſt ages, made a law of it, and eſtabliſhed it as a maxim, that as the natural right of things, which have no maſter, belongs to the firſt poſſeſſor, wild beaſts, birds and fiſhes, are the property of thoſe who can take them firſt.

But the northern nations of barbarians, who overran the Roman empire, bringing with them a ſtronger taſte for the diverſion, and the people being now poſſeſſed of other and more eaſy means of ſubſiſtence, from the lands and poſſeſſions of thoſe they had vanquiſhed, their chiefs and leaders be-

gan to appropriate the right of hunting, and, inſtead of a natural right, to make it a royal one. Thus it continues till this day; the right of hunting, among us, belonging only to the king, and thoſe who derive it from him.

The hunting uſed by the ancients was much like that now practiſed for the rain-deer, which is ſeldom hunted at force, or with hounds; but only drawn with a blood-hound, and foreſtalled with nets and engines. Thus they did with all beaſts; whence a dog is never commended by them for opening before he has diſcovered where the beaſt lies. Hence, they were not in any manner curious as to the muſic of their hounds, or the compoſition of their kennel or pack, either for deepneſs, loudneſs, or ſweetneſs of cry, which is a principal point in the hunting of our days. Their huntſmen, indeed, were accuſtomed to ſhout and make a great noiſe, as Virgil obſerves in his Georgics. But that confuſion was only to bring the deer into the nets laid for him.

The Sicilian way of hunting had ſomething in it very extraordinary.—The nobles or gentry being informed which way a herd of deer paſſed, gave notice one to another, and appointed a meeting; every one bringing with him a croſs-bow or long-bow, and a bundle of ſtaves ſhod with iron, the heads bored, with a cord paſſing through them all: thus provided, they came to the herd, and, caſting themſelves about in a large ring, ſurrounded the deer. Then, each taking his ſtand, unbound his faggot, ſet up his ſtake, and tied the end of the cord to that of his next neighbour, at the diſtance of ten feet from one another. Then taking feathers, dipped in crimſon, and faſtened on a thread, they tied them to the cord; ſo that with the leaſt breath of wind they would whirl round. This done, the perſons who kept the ſtands, withdrew, and hid themſelves in the next covert. Then the chief ranger entering within the line, with hounds to draw after the herd, rouſed the game with their cry, which flying toward the line, were turned off, and ſtill gazing on the ſhaking and ſhining feathers, wandered about as if kept in with a real wall or pale. The ranger ſtill purſued, and calling every perſon by name as he paſſed by their ſtand, commanded him to ſhoot the firſt, third or ſixth, as he pleaſed; and if any of them miſſed, or ſingled out another than that aſſigned him, it was counted a grievous diſgrace. By theſe means, as they paſſed by the ſeveral ſtations, the whole herd was killed by the ſeveral hands.

Hunting formed the greateſt part of the employment of the ancient Germans, and probably of the Britons alſo, when they were not engaged in war. We are informed alſo by ſome ancient hiſtorians, that this was the caſe even as late as the third century, with the unconquered Britons who lived beyond Adrian's wall; nay, that they ſubſiſted chiefly by the prey they took in this way. The great attachment ſhown by all the Celtic nations to hunting, however, proceeded moſt probably from its being a kind of apprenticeſhip to war. Thus their youth acquired that courage, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, and dexterity in handling their arms, which made them ſo formidable in time of war to their enemies. Thus alſo they freed the country from many miſchievous animals which abounded in the foreſts, furniſhing themſelves alſo with materials for thoſe feaſts, which ſeem to have conſtituted their greateſt pleaſure. The young chieftains had thus likewiſe an opportunity of paying court to their miſtreſſes, by diſplaying their bravery and agility, and making them preſents of their game; nay, ſo ſtrong and univerſal was the paſſion for hunting among the ancient Britons, that young ladies of the higheſt quality and greateſt beauty ſpent much of their time in the chaſe. They employed much the ſame weapons in hunting that they did in war, viz. long ſpears, javelins, and bows

and arrows; having alſo great numbers of dogs to aſſiſt them in finding and purſuing their game. Theſe dogs, we are alſo told, were much admired among other nations, on account of their ſwiftneſs, ſtrength, fierceneſs, and exquiſite ſenſe of ſmelling. They were of different kinds, called by different names, and formed a conſiderable article of commerce.

It would extend this article beyond all reaſonable bounds, were we to enter into a detail of the different modes of hunting uſed by the different ancient and modern nations. Theſe may be found in their reſpective hiſtories. We ſhall now enquire into what ſeems more immediately of importance.

Notwithſtanding the general paſſion among moſt nations for hunting, it has by many been deemed an exerciſe inconſiſtent with the principles of humanity. The late king of Pruſſia expreſſed himſelf on this ſubject in the following manner: 'The chaſe is one of the moſt ſenſual of pleaſures, by which the powers of the body are ſtrongly exerted, but thoſe of the mind remain unemployed. It is an exerciſe which makes the limbs ſtrong, active, and pliable; but leaves the head without improvement. It conſiſts in a violent deſire in the purſuit, and the indulgence of a cruel pleaſure in the death, of the game. I am convinced that man is more cruel and ſavage than any beaſt of prey: we exerciſe the dominion given us over theſe our fellow-creatures in the moſt tyrannical manner. If we pretend to any ſuperiority over the beaſts, it ought certainly to conſiſt in reaſon; but we commonly find that the moſt paſſionate lovers of the chaſe renounce this privilege, and converſe only with their dogs, horſes, and other irrational animals. This renders them wild and unfeeling; and it is probable that they cannot be very merciful to the human ſpecies. For a man who can in cold blood torture a poor innocent animal, cannot feel much compaſſion for the diſtreſſes of his own ſpecies. And beſides, can the chaſe be a proper employment for a thinking mind?'

The arguments uſed by his majeſty againſt hunting, ſeem indeed to be much confirmed by conſidering the various nations who have moſt addicted themſelves to it. Theſe were all barbarous, and it is remarkable that Nimrod, the firſt great hunter of whom we have any account, was likewiſe the firſt who oppreſſed and enſlaved his own ſpecies. As nations advanced in civilization, it always became neceſſary to reſtrain by law the inclination of the people for hunting. This was done by the wiſe legiſlator Solon, leſt the Athenians ſhould neglect the mechanic arts on its account. The Lacedemonians, on the contrary, indulged themſelves in this diverſion without controul; but they were barbarians, and moſt cruelly oppreſſed thoſe whom they had in their power, as is evident from their treatment of the Helots. The like may be ſaid of the Egyptians, Perſians, and Scythians; all of whom delighted in war, and oppreſſed their own ſpecies. The Romans, on the other hand, who were ſomewhat more civilized, were leſs addicted to hunting. Even they, however, were exceedingly barbarous, and found it neceſſary to make death and ſlaughter familiar to their citizens from their infancy. Hence their diverſions of the amphitheatre and circus, where the hunting of wild beaſts was ſhown in the moſt magnificent and cruel manner; not to mention their ſtill more cruel ſports of gladiators, &c.

In two caſes only does it ſeem poſſible to reconcile the practice of hunting with humanity, viz. either when an uncultivated country is over-run with noxious animals; or when it is neceſſary to kill wild animals for food. In the former caſe, the noxious animals are killed becauſe they themſelves would do ſo if they were allowed to live; but if we kill even a lion or a tyger, merely for the pleaſure of killing him, we are undoubtedly chargeable with cruelty. In like manner, our modern fox-hunters expreſsly kill foxes, not in order to deſtroy the breed of theſe noxious animals, but for the pleaſure of ſeeing them exert

all their power and cunning to ſave their lives, and then beholding them torn in pieces, after being half dead with fatigue. This refinement in cruelty, it ſeems, is their favourite diverſion; and it is accounted a crime for any perſon to deſtroy theſe animals in ſelf-defence, as appears from the following paſſage in Mr. Beckford's treatiſe on hunting. 'Beſide the digging of foxes, by which method many young ones are taken, and old ones deſtroyed, traps, &c. are *too often* fatal to them! Farmers for their lambs (which, by the bye, few foxes ever kill) gentlemen for their game, and old women for their poultry, are their inveterate enemies. In the country where I live, moſt of the gentlemen are ſportſmen; and even thoſe who are not, ſhow every kind of attention to thoſe who are. I am ſorry it is otherwiſe with you; and that your old gouty neighbour ſhould deſtroy your foxes, I muſt own concerns me. I know ſome gentlemen, who, when a neighbour had deſtroyed all their foxes, and thereby prevented them from purſuing a favourite amuſement, loaded a cart with ſpaniels, and went altogether and deſtroyed his pheaſants. I think they might have called this very properly *lex talionis*; and it had the deſired effect; for as the gentleman did not think it prudent to fight them all, he took the wiſer method, he made peace with them. He gave an order that no more foxes ſhould be deſtroyed, and they never afterward killed any of his pheaſants.

In the firſt volume of the Manchester Tranſactions, we have a diſſertation upon the diverſions of hunting, ſhooting, &c. as *compatible* with the principles of humanity. One argument uſed by the author is, that death is no poſitive evil to brutes. 'It would perhaps (ſays he) be too haſty an aſſertion to affirm, that death to brutes is no evil. We are not competent to determine whether their exiſtence, like our own, may not extend to ſome future mode of being, or whether the preſent limited ſphere is all in which they are intereſted. On ſo ſpeculative a queſtion, little can be advanced with preciſion; nor is it neceſſary for the inveſtigation of the ſubject before us. If we may be allowed to reaſon from what we know, it may be ſafely conjectured, that death to brutes is no poſitive evil: we have no reaſon to believe they are endowed with foreſight; and therefore, even admitting that with them the pleaſures of life exceed its pains and cares, in terminating their exiſtence, they only ſuffer a privation of pleaſure.'

On this extraordinary piece of reaſoning we may obſerve, that it wou'd hold much more againſt the human ſpecies than againſt brutes. There are few among us willing to allow that the pleaſures we enjoy are equivalent to our pains and cares; death therefore muſt be to us a relief from pain and miſery, while to the brutes it is a privation of pleaſure. Hence, if it be no poſitive evil for a brute to ſuffer death, to a man it muſt be a poſitive good: add to which, that a man lives in hope of an endleſs and glorious life, while a brute has no ſuch hope; ſo that, if to kill a brute, on our author's principles, be no cruelty, to kill a man muſt be an act of tenderneſs and mercy.

Another argument, not leſs inconcluſive, is our author's ſuppoſing that death from diſeaſe is much more to be dreaded in a brute, than a violent death. Were brutes naturally in as helpleſs a ſtate as man, no doubt their want of ſupport from ſociety in caſes where they are attacked by ſickneſs would be very deplorable; but it muſt be conſidered that the parallel between the two ſpecies is in this reſpect by no means fair. A brute has every where its food at hand, and is naturally capable of reſiſting the inclemencies of the weather; but man has not only a natural inability to procure food for himſelf in the way that the brutes do, but is, beſides, very tender and incapable of reſiſting the inclemency of the air. Hence, a man un-

aſſiſted by ſociety, muſt very ſoon periſh; and, no doubt, it would be much more merciful for people to kill one another at once, than to deprive them of the benefits of ſociety, as is too frequently done in various ways, needleſs to be mentioned at preſent. A brute, however, has nothing to fear. As long as its ſtomach can receive food, nature offers an abundant ſupply. One that feeds upon graſs has it always within reach; and a carnivorous one will content itſelf with worms or inſects, which, as long as it is able to crawl, it can ſtill make a ſhift to provide; but ſo totally helpleſs is man when left to himſelf in a ſtate of weakneſs, that many barbarous nations have looked upon the killing of their old and infirm people to be an act of mercy.

Equally unhappy is our author in his other arguments, that the quick tranſition from a ſtate of perfect health to death mitigates the ſeverity. The tranſition is not quick. The ſportſmen eſtimate their diverſion by the length of the chaſe; and during all that time the creature muſt be under the ſtrongeſt agonies of terror; and what perſon of humanity is there who muſt not feel for an animal in this ſituation? All this is aſſented to by our author, who ſays, 'Hard is the heart which does not commiſerate the ſufferer.' Is not this an acknowledgement on his part, that before a perſon can become a thorough ſportſman, he muſt harden his heart, and ſtifle thoſe amiable ſenſations of compaſſion, which on all occaſions ought to be encouraged toward every creature, unleſs in caſes of neceſſity. But in the preſent caſe no neceſſity is or can be pretended. If a gentleman chooſes to regale himſelf with veniſon of any kind, he may breed the animals for the purpoſe. We call Domitian cruel, becauſe he took pleaſure in catching flies, and ſtabbing them with a bodkin. A butcher is excluded from ſitting on a jury on account of his being accuſtomed to ſights, which are deemed inhuman; but whether it is more inhuman to knock down an ox at once with an ax, or to tear him in pieces with dogs (for they would accompliſh the purpoſe if properly trained) muſt be left to the ſportſmen to determine.

Laſtly, the great argument in favour of hunting, that it contributes to the health of the body and exhilaration of the ſpirits, ſeems equally fallacious with the reſt. It cannot be proved that hunters are more healthy or long lived than other people. That exerciſe will contribute to the preſervation of health, as well as to the exhilaration of the mind, is undoubted; but many other kinds of exerciſe will do this as well as hunting. A man may ride from morning to night, and amuſe himſelf with viewing and making remarks on the country through which he paſſes; and ſurely there is no perſon will ſay that this exerciſe will tend to impair his health or ſink his ſpirits. A man may amuſe and exerciſe himſelf not only with pleaſure, but profit alſo, in many different ways, and yet not accuſtom himſelf to behold the death of animals with indifference. It is this that conſtitutes the cruelty of hunting; becauſe we thus wilfully extinguiſh in part, that principle implanted in our nature, which if totally eradicated would ſet us not only on a level with the moſt ferocious wild beaſts, but perhaps conſiderably below them; and it muſt always be remembered, that whatever pleaſure terminates in death, is cruel, let us uſe as many palliatives as we pleaſe to hide that cruelty from the eyes of others, or even from our own.

The celebrated Mr. Soame Jenyns has ſome remarks on this ſubject, which are highly deſerving remembrance. So violent, ſays he, are the paſſions of anger and revenge in the human breaſt, that it is not wonderful that men ſhould perſecute their real or imaginary enemies with cruelty and malevolence; but that there ſhould exiſt in nature a being, who can receive pleaſure from giving pain, would be totally incredible, if we were not convinced, by melancholy experience, that there are not only many, but that

this unaccountable diſpoſition is in ſome manner inherent in the nature of man; for, as he cannot be taught by example, nor led to it by temptation, or prompted to it by intereſt, it muſt be derived from his native conſtitution; and is a remarkable confirmation of what Revelation ſo frequently inculcates—that he brings into the world with him an original depravity, the effects of a fallen and degenerate ſtate; in proof of which we need only obſerve, that the nearer he approaches to a ſtate of nature, the more predominant this diſpoſition appears, and the more violently it operates. We ſee children laughing at the miſeries which they inflict on every unfortunate animal which comes within their power; all ſavages are ingenious in contriving, and happy in executing the moſt exquiſite tortures: and the common people of all countries are delighted withnothing ſo much as bull-baitings, prize-fightings, executions, and all ſpectacles of cruelty and horror. Though civilization may in ſome degree abate this native ferocity, it can never quite extirpate it; the moſt poliſhed are not aſhamed to be pleaſed with ſcenes of little leſs barbarity, and, to the diſgrace of human nature, to dignify them with the name of ſports. They arm cocks with artificial weapons, which nature had kindly denied to their malevolence, and, with ſhouts of applauſe and triumph, ſee them plunge them into each other's hearts; they view with delight the trembling deer and defenceleſs hare, flying for hours in the utmoſt agonies of terror and deſpair, and, at laſt, ſinking under fatigue, devoured by their mercileſs purſuers—What name, ſays the ſame author, would we beſtow on a ſuperior being, whoſe whole endeavours were employed, and whoſe whole pleaſure conſiſted, in terrifying, enſnaring, tormenting, and deſtroying mankind? whoſe ſuperior faculties were exerted in fomenting animoſities againſt them, in contriving engines of deſtruction, and inciting them to uſe them in maiming and murdering each other? Whoſe whole power over them was employed in aſſiſting the rapacious, deceiving the ſimple, and oppreſſing the innocent? Who, without provocation or advantage, ſhould continue from day to day, void of all pity and remorſe, thus to torment mankind for diverſion, and, at the ſame time, endeavour with his utmoſt care to preſerve their lives, and to propagate their ſpecies, in order to increaſe the number of victims devoted to his malevolence, and be delighted in proportion to the miſeries he occaſioned? I ſay, what name deteſtable enough could we find for ſuch a being? Yet, if we impartially conſider the caſe, and our intermediate ſituation, we muſt acknowledge, that, with regard to inferior animals, juſt ſuch a being is a SPORTSMAN.

ON ENGLISH VERSE.

RHYME, we have often been told, is a modern invention; though, if that was a crime, it might perhaps be proved to be not ſo very modern neither. It is reckoned a barbarous one by ſome pedants; who finding, I ſuppoſe, by the opinion of better judges than themſelves, that it is abominable in Greek and Latin, conclude that it muſt not be leſs ſo in French and Engliſh. The contrary is evident to every one that has ears, and dares think for himſelf; for in Engliſh, rhyme is capable of much harmony; and the French can have no verſification without it. But ſome people, who ought to know better, ſeem to make no allowance for the original difference between one language and another; and are ready to quarrel with the Engliſh as a barbarous language, becauſe it is not Latin or Greek. They do not conſider, that every language has powers and graces peculiar to itſelf; and that what is becoming in one would be quite ridiculous in another. Of this it is ſufficient to produce one obvious example: The

tranſpoſition of words, which gives ſuch a grace and ſpirit to the Greek and Latin languages, and without which they would become deteſtably flat and inſipid, does not at all ſuit the genius of the Engliſh; except ſometimes in poetry: and, by the way, I am afraid there are too many ungraceful tranſpoſitions current among our Engliſh poets.

But it is not only a few obſcure pedants, who are thus diſſatisfied with their mother tongue; and would be glad for its improvement to torture it from its native ſhape, ſome into Latin and others into French; for attempts of this kind have actually been made by men of ſuperior note. Sir Philip Sidney, who, notwithſtanding his affected manner, muſt be allowed to have poſſeſſed a great ſhare of genius, would every now and then ſpur up his gallant Engliſh into a moſt unbecoming ridiculous trot after the Greek and Latin Hexameters. It is certainly impoſſible to introduce the Greek and Latin meaſures into Engliſh poetry with any ſucceſs; yet ſir Philip was fond of this project, and purſued it with a ſtrange obſtinacy. He recommended it to Spenſer; but Spenſer had too true an ear to reliſh ſuch awkward unnatural verſification, or countenance it by his example. At leaſt there is nothing remaining of him to ſhow that he ever practiſed it. There have been attempts made ſince to the ſame purpoſe by Milton, and ſome later authors. But there never was any thing ſeen ſo ungraceful or ſo deſpicably pedantic as all eſſays of that kind which have hitherto appeared. I do not know that it has ever yet been tried, except by Milton in ſome parts of his Sampſon; but of all the Greek or Latin meaſures, the Iambic ſeems the moſt capable of being adopted into the Engliſh poetry.

I have either heard or read, that a poet of the laſt century, whom I ſhall not name, becauſe I am not perfectly ſure of the fact, pretended to ſome ſecrets in verſification, which he did not chooſe to communicate. If it was ſo, it ſhowed a jealouſy unworthy of ſo great a maſter of numbers: he might ſafely enough, for his own ſuperiority, have publiſhed thoſe ſecrets, whatever they were; for it is impoſſible they could ever be of much uſe. He could eaſily adviſe you to vary your pauſes, and tell you which are the moſt graceful: but theſe, and all ſuch precepts, are nothing to the purpoſe; a good ear will naturally produce harmony without the leaſt regard or attention to rules; and there is no cure for a bad one. The only way to improve the ear, whether good or bad, is to accuſtom it to the moſt harmonious writing.

Blank verſe admits of a greater variety of pauſes than rhyme, and is partly for that reaſon the fitteſt for works of any conſiderable length. But in Engliſh poetry, I queſtion whether it is poſſible, with any ſucceſs, to write odes, epiſtles, elegies, paſtorals, or ſatires, without rhyme. And it happens luckily, that in theſe ſhort pieces the ear has not time to be tired with the return of the chimes; which, in my humble opinion, had better ſometimes play a little falſe to one another, than be for ever ſcrupulouſly exact; provided ſuch licences never ſhock the ear.

It does not require a very exquiſite ear to write too ſmooth, or even harmonious lines running; yet in rhyme, a poet, who is always very careful to poliſh his couplet, may paſs with the multitude for a great maſter in verſification. But as long as his harmony is confined within ſuch narrow bounds, he writes but like a ſchool-boy, who keeps in the line only with the help of ruled paper.

Dr. Swift and Mr. Pope took offence, one does not know why, at the triplet, and very rarely condeſcended to admit it into their verſe. It is true, it had been uſed to a nauſeous exceſs by ſome taſteleſs writers; and Mr Pope's own imitation of Rocheſter, might juſtly enough give him a diſguſt to the triplet for his whole life. Yet it contributes not a little to the grace of Dryden's verſification: and I can ſee no reaſon why it ſhould be

prohibited now; as it gives a variety to the numbers, which in rhyme is ſufficiently limited to require ſuch a help.

It does not ſeem quite foreign to the preſent ſubject to take ſome notice of Voltaire, who after having given it as his opinion, that Mr. Pope is the moſt harmonious of all the Engliſh poets, adds, with a very plauſible aſſurance, that he has reduced the ſharp hiſſings of the Engliſh trumpet to the ſweet ſounds of the flute. It is no great wonder, that one who is apt to write much at random, ſhould preſume to talk ſo contemptuouſly of a manly, and elegant and harmonious language, with which he plainly appears to have but a very ſuperficial acquaintance. But who ever talked before of the *hiſſings* of a *trumpet*, or of *ſharp hiſſings?* We have all heard of the *hearſe* trumpet, but the *hiſſing* trumpet is an inſtrument we are not yet acquainted with. However, to paſs theſe little improprieties, this compliment to Pope ſhews how well our critic is qualified to pronounce ſentence upon the Engliſh poets. No one is more ſenſible than I am of Mr. Pope's merit; but his blindeſt admirer might ſtartle at the preference beſtowed upon him here. For, not to mention the great names of Spenſer, Shakſpeare, and Milton, upon ſuch an occaſion, let us only compare Pope in this point of view, with a writer upon whom, as they ſay, he formed himſelf, and whom not only in his own opinion, but in that of many others, he is thought to have excelled in the art of verſifying. It is almoſt needleſs, after this, to ſay I mean Dryden, whoſe verſification I take to be the moſt muſical that has yet appeared in rhyme. Round, ſweet, pompous, ſpirited and various; it flows with ſuch a happy volubility, ſuch animated and maſterly negligence, as I am afraid will not ſoon be excelled.

KING ARTHUR, *as he Appears in* TRADITION; *and his probable* HISTORY.

[From Mr. Turner's Hiſtory of the Anglo-Saxons.]

AMONG the defenders of Britain, one proud name exiſts, which is more familiar to mankind than any other, and which has too long engroſſed attention to be haſtily paſſed over. Into ſuch a gigantic port has Arthur been magnified, that he beſtrides Europe, and by his immeaſurable greatneſs almoſt defies our comprehenſion. The glance of man cannot traverſe the endleſs coloſſus, by magic firſt gifted with life, and by death not ſhrouded from the conſcious world, but extolled into a glaring phantom, whoſe ſword reached from Scandinavia to Spain, and before whom all the monarchs of the eaſt and weſt, with their defeated armies and ſubjected nations, fell humbly proſtrate.

Yet however diſtorted by his diſproportionate magnitude, the diſtinguiſhed rank which Arthur has for ages occupied in the ſongs and tales, not only of his own friends and their dependants, but of his neighbours and enemies, forbids us to ſuffer him to ſleep forgotten in his Avallonian tomb. Was it to be expunged from paſt exiſtence, as well as from memory, that he and his proud knights filled England, Scotland, France and Denmark with their triumphs, and Caerleon with philoſophers? For this did the kings of Greece and Africa, of Spain and Parthia, of Phrygia and Egypt, of Iturea and Babylon, march in union with the Roman generals to be deſtroyed by his caliburno, which no armour could reſiſt? For this did he proſtrate eight hundred and forty enemies in one battle with his ſingle arm? For this did Merlin conſtruct that enchanted table, which the glory of its order has ſo renowned; which three great cities in Britain witneſſed

(though an invidious neighbour tranſfers it to Charlemagne) and preſent him with that fteely dragon which breathed in flames from his fearful ſtandard? For this did the compaſſionate Morgana tranſport, by her fairy power, the hero, dying by treachery, into the iſland of Avallonia to heal his wounds, monopolize his attentions, and in ſome future age reſtore him to the world? Awake ye heroes who have ſo long vibrated on the harps of Cambria and Bretagne, ſound fiercely your buffalo horns, and paſs once more before us in review—

The authentic actions of Arthur have been ſo disfigured by the gorgeous additions of the minſtrels and of Jeffry, that many writers have denied that he ever lived; but this is an extreme as wild as the romances which occaſioned it. His exiſtence is teſtified by his contemporaries, whoſe genius has ſurvived the ruin of twelve centuries; and the Britiſh bards are a body of men too illuſtrious for their perſonal merit and wonderful inſtitution to be diſcredited when they atteſt. The tales, that all human perfection was collected in Arthur; that giants and kings who never exiſted, and nations which he never ſaw, were ſubdued by him; that he went to Jeruſalem for the ſacred croſs; or that he not only excelled the experienced paſt, but alſo the poſſible future, we may, if we pleaſe, recollect only to deſpiſe: but when all the fictions are removed, and thoſe incidents only are retained which the ſober criticiſm of hiſtory ſanctions with its approbation, a fame ample enough to intereſt the judicious, and to perpetuate his honorable memory, will ſtill continue to bloom.

We are not yet empowered to point out the exact province from which Arthur emerged. We hear of two kings of Gwent in the ſixth century of the name of *Arthrius*; but whether either of theſe was the conqueror of the Saxons, or whether his reputation had occaſioned others to impoſe the name on their children, or whether it be the ſame name, is uncertain. It is affirmed that Noe, ſon of an Arthur, gave Llandilovawr to the church. If this was a child of the celebrated Arthur, his donation announces a ſovereignty in Carmarthenſhire: but in theſe days of confuſion, when chieftains fled from one country to another, we cannot infer the firſt reſidence of the father from the ſituation of his children. When Melva, king of Somerſetſhire, deprived him of his wife, he appeared at the head of the men of Cornwall and Devon: when he gave his ſplendid feaſt, after his victory over the Saxons, Caerleon on the Uſk was the ſcene of the carouſal. Theſe incidents ſeem to ſtation him in various places, and forbid us to decide poſitively in favour of either.

The chronology of his firſt appearance is alſo undetermined. We may chooſe the period which ſeems to us moſt probable, but we have no right to force it on the belief of others. The æra which we ſhould prefer would be one which did not precede 528. On ſuch a ſubject it would be ludicrous to attempt preciſion.

In 519, Cerdic obtained the deciſive victory at Chardford, which eſtabliſhed him in the ſovereignty of Weſſex. With whom he fought we know not. It is 527 before another ſtruggle occurred, and this was fought at Chardſley, in Bucks. We may concede the command of the Britons to Arthur if we pleaſe; but we cannot, if rigidly interrogated, produce evidence of the fact.

In 530, if that was the particular year in which Geraint fell, we can authenticate his preſence in the battle of Llongborth. We have already intimated another battle on the Llawen, in which Arthur alſo ſeems to have been the general. He may have fought the twelve battles mentioned by Nennius; but it is not beyond the rules of fair criticiſm to doubt if they were all directed againſt the Anglo-Saxons. We know that a part of Arthur's valour was exerted againſt

his ambitious competitors: he once led on the warriors of Cornwall and Devon againſt the king of Somerſetſhire, and he is alſo declared to have maintained a war in the north againſt a Britiſh prince. Huel, the brother of Gildas Albanius, would not ſubmit to the dominion of Arthur. A vigorous war deſtroyed the refractory chief, and Arthur rejoiced that his moſt formidable enemy was no more.

Four of the twelve battles have been ably illuſtrated by Mr. Whitaker. Mr. Camden and others had remarked, that the Douglas, on which Nennius had placed them, was a river in Lancaſhire. The hiſtorian of Mancheſter has commented on the poſitions of theſe conflicts with great local knowledge: his fancy, though often too prolific, and even on this portion of our hiſtory brilliantly active, yet deſcribes theſe with ſo much probability, that we may adopt his ſketches as hiſtory.

The battle of Badon Mount has been celebrated as his greateſt and moſt uſeful achievement: a long interval of repoſe to the Britons has been announced as its conſequence; yet it is curious to remark, that this mighty victory only checked the progreſs of Cerdic, and does not appear to have produced any further ſucceſs. We hear not of the vindictive purſuit of Arthur, of the invaſion of Hampſhire, or the danger of Cerdic. The Saxon was penetrating onward even toward Wales or Mercia: he was defeated, and did not advance. No other conflicts enſued. Arthur was content to repulſe. This muſt have been becauſe he wanted power to purſue. Arthur was, therefore, not the warrior of irreſiſtible ſtrength: he permitted Cerdic to retain his ſettlements at Weſſex, and ſuch an acquieſcence accredits the chronicle, which aſſerts, that after many fierce conflicts, he conceded to the Saxon, the counties of Southampton and Somerſet.

This ſtate of moderate greatneſs ſuits the character in which the Welch bards exhibit Arthur: they commemorate him, but it is not with that excelling glory with which he has been ſurrounded by ſubſequent traditions. The ſong ſometimes ſwells with the actions of a warrior: but it was an age of warriors, and Urien of Reged ſeems to have employed the harp more than Arthur. Lywarch the aged, who lived through the whole period of ſlaughter, and had been one of the gueſts and counſellors of Arthur, yet diſplays him not in tranſcendant majeſty. In the battle of Llongborth, which Arthur directed, it was the valour of Geriant that arreſted the bard's notice: and his elegy, though long, ſcarcely mentions the commander, whoſe merit, in the frenzy of later fablers, clouds every other. As his poem was a gift to the dead, it may be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs leſs of flattery and more of truth in its panegyric; it ſpeaks of Arthur with reſpect, but not with wonder: Arthur is ſimply mentioned as the commander and the conductor of the toil of war, but Geraint is profuſely celebrated.

In the ſame manner Arthur appears in the Afellanau of Myrzin: he is mentioned as a character well known, but not idolized: yet he was then dead, and all the actions of his patriotiſm and valour had been performed; not a ſingle epithet is added, from which we can diſcern him to have been that whirlwind of war, which ſwept away in its courſe all the ſkill and armies of Europe. That he was a courageous warrior is unqueſtionable; but, that he was the miraculous Mars of the Britiſh hiſtory, from whom kings and nations ſunk in panic, is completely diſproved by the temperate encomiums of his contemporary bards.

One fact is ſufficient to refute all the hyperboles of Jeffry. Though Arthur lived and fought, yet the Anglo-Saxons were not driven from the iſland, but gradually advanced their conqueſts, with progreſſive dominion, whether he was alive, or whe-

ther he was dead. Reflecting on this unqueſtionable fact, we may heſitate to believe that Arthur was victorious in all his battles, becauſe, if he weilded the whole force of Britain, and only fought to conquer, what reſcued Cerdic, Ella, the ſon of Hengiſt, and the invaders of Eſſex and Eaſt Anglia, from abſolute deſtruction?

Yet, on peruſing the Britiſh Triades, we diſcover ſome traits which raiſe Arthur above the ſituation of a provincial chieftain. They give him three chief palaces, and the poſitions of theſe imply a ſovereignty on the weſtern part of the iſland from Cornwall to Scotland. His court ſeems to have been ſomewhat extraordinary, becauſe we read of its three golden-tongued knights, its three free and diſcontented gueſts, its three undaunted chiefs, his three knight-counſellors, his three compeers; all theſe expreſſions indicate a prince of peculiar power and diſtinction, and on connecting theſe with the number and ſituation of his palaces, a prince of conſiderable dignity riſes to our view.

Two circumſtances will render this aggrandizement more intelligible. Firſt, the progreſs of the Anglo-Saxons muſt have materially affected the multipilicity of ſovereignties which had divided Britain. Wherever they advanced, the petty principalities muſt have been deſtroyed, and if compelled to a retrogade movement, the diſtricts obtained from them would become the property of their conqueror. Thus by deſtroying the other kingdoms of the Saxons, the Danes produced the monarchy of Alfred; and thus the Saxons, by the inevitable ſlaughter even of battles in which they were beaten, as well as by the progreſs of their conqueſt, left many diſtricts without a ruler. Secondly, under Arthur, as afterward under Urien, the Britons confederated, and of theſe combinations Arthur was the choſen general. Nennius mentions that he marched with the king of the Britons; the Welch chronology, that he, with the elders, fought the battle of Badon. Arthur was therefore raiſed to a great military preponderance, and as the Britiſh chieftains periſhed in the furious warfare, he may have poſſeſſed himſelf of the territories they left. That he was careful to accumulate dominion appears from his war with Huel. It was, indeed, an age of ambitious competition, and the power with which the command of the military forces of Britain inveſted him, would enable him to aſſert his will with ſucceſs, whenever rivalſhip oppoſed.

Hence, whatever was Arthur's original dignity, the revolutions of this unfortunate period tended to throw into his poſſeſſion a great aggregation of power. His victories againſt the common enemy would favour his acquiſition of dominion. Arthur may be therefore contemplated as a chief, elevated by his own abilities and ſucceſs into a king of power; not of the overwhelming might of an Oroondates, or an Alexander, but of power ſufficient to withſtand the Saxons, and to ſupport his competitors.

Twenty-two years are calculated to have intervened between the battle of Bath, in which he checked the ſtream of the Saxon conqueſt, and that fatal period, in which he was torn from his lamenting friends by domeſtic treachery and civil rebellion. This cataſtrophe was produced by the infidelity of his queen Gwenhyfar, and the hoſtility of Medrawd, his nephew. As Medrawd was able to defy the vengeance of the potent Arthur, and even to meet him in battle, we may ſuſpect that chieftains, jealous of Arthur's authority, ſupported the rebellion. Some authors intimate, that to obtain the aid or neutrality of the Weſt Saxons, Medrawd gave them ſeveral provinces in their vicinity. As uſurped power always ſeeks to maintain itſelf by crimes, and abſurdly hopes to obtain from new tranſgreſſions, that impunity which it can never find, Medrawd may have ſacrificed his country to his revenge; but all who love truth in hiſtory will

tread lightly and cautiouſly over theſe events, and not bring any incident too ſtrongly into notice.

Camlan was the ſcene of that diſaſtrous conflict, in which Medrawd dared to meet his injured uncle with the ſword of revolt, and to conſummate the crime of inceſt by murder. Two days the battle laſted. The poem of Myrzin adds, that ſeven only eſcaped from the ſlaughter. We may interpret this of chiefs, or officers. The traitor fell, but Arthur alſo received a mortal wound. From the coaſt of Cornwall he was conveyed into Somerſetſhire. Sailing along the ſhore they reached the Uzella, which they aſcended, and the king was committed to the care of his friends in Glaſtonbury, but their ſkill could not avert the fatal hour.

The grave of Arthur was the myſtery of the world; his death was concealed, and a wild tale was diffuſed among the populace, that he had withdrawn from the world into ſome magical region, from which, at a future criſis, he was to re-appear, and to lead the Cymry in triumph through the iſland. Why this fiction was invented we may now enquire in vain. It could not repreſs the ambition of the Saxons, becauſe the temporary abſence of Arthur was ſufficient to favour their wiſhes; and if his living authority could not prevent Britiſh inſurrection, was it probable that his reſidence in another region would avail; yet Talieſſin induſtriouſly ſang, that Morgana promiſed, if he remained along time with her, to heal his wounds: and it is notorious, that the return of Arthur was a fond hope of the people for many ages. Perhaps it was an illuſion deviſed to avert the popular vengeance from thoſe who, by aiding Medrawd, had contributed to produce the lamented event: perhaps the kings, inculpated by Gildas, had participated in the rebellion; or, perhaps ſome, affecting to reign in truſt for Arthur, conciliated the public prejudice in favour of their government, by thus repreſenting that they governed only for him.

Of the family of Arthur we know little: we hear of Noe in Carmarthenſhire, reputed to be his ſon, another ſon, Llechan, is celebrated as an accompliſhed warrior. His ſiſter Anna married Llew, brother of the famous Urien, and ſon of Cynvarch: the traitor Medrawd was her ſon. The marriage of Anna united the kings of the northern Britons in conſanguinity with Arthur; but this connection, inſtead of cementing the bond of patriotiſm, by the addition of relationſhip, ultimately deſtroyed the great bulwark of the iſland.

But though the friends of Arthur concealed the place of his interment, a future age diſcovered it. In the year 1189, when romance had begun to magnify his fame, his body was diligently ſought for in the abbey of Glaſtonbury. Henry de Soili, the abbot, at the ſolicitation of Henry II, and others, proſecuted the ſearch. The king had often told him, that he had heard from the Welch bards, that Arthur lay buried between two pyramids, very deep. The monaſtery contained two ſtone pillars, with many inſcriptions, illegible from the injuries of time, and the antiquity of the writing. The ground between theſe was dug to a great depth, and about ſeven feet below the ſurface a leaden croſs was found under a ſtone, with the inſcription. 'Hic jacet ſepultus inclitus rex Arthurus in inſula Avallonia.' The abbot preſented the croſs, and Giraldus read the inſcription. Nine feet below this, the remains of Arthur appeared incloſed in oak: of this formidable warrior nothing but duſt and bones were viſible. Some yellow female hair indicated that his ſecond wife had lain near him.

The bones of Arthur were as extraordinary as his reputed actions: an eyewitneſs declares, that the abbot applied the *tibia*, or leg-bone, to the leg of the talleſt men then preſent, and that it roſe three fingers-breadth

above his knee. His ſcull was equally prodigious; the ſpace of a hand expanded between the bones which had been covered by his eyebrows. Ten wounds marked the head, which had concreted into ſcars, except one that diſplayed an uncloſed chaſm, the avenue of fate.

The revered relics of this hero were reinterred with magnificence. His ſword, his caliburno, as a precious gift, was preſented by Richard the firſt to the king of Sicily, and his crown was taken away by Edward from Caernarvon. The publication of Jeffry's Britiſh Hiſtory, an interpolated tranſlation of the compoſition of Tyſſilio, diffuſed the fame of Arthur with new but extravagant ſplendour through England, through Europe, and the world. By doing Arthur this juſtice, he ſaved nature ſome trouble, for 'had men been ſilent about Arthur, the mountains, rocks, and ſtones of Wales, would have been perpetually proclaiming his name. Such is the inſeparable attachment of glory to virtue.'

MODERN ALEXANDRIA.

[From Sonnini's Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt.]

THE new city, or rather the town of Alexandria, is built, the greateſt part of it at leaſt, on the brink of the ſea. Its houſes, like all thoſe of the Levant, have flat terrace roofs: they have no windows, and the apertures which ſupply their place are almoſt entirely obſtructed by a wooden lattice projecting, of various form, and ſo cloſe, that the light can hardly force a paſſage. It is through this grate of iron or wood, ſometimes of elegant conſtruction, that beauty is permitted to ſee what is paſſing without, but eternally deprived of the privilege of being ſeen: it is in this ſtate of hopeleſs ſecluſion that, far from receiving the homage which nature demands to be paid to it by every being poſſeſſed of ſenſibility, it meets only contempt and outrage; it is there, in a word, that one part of the human race, abuſing the odious right of the more powerful, retains in degrading ſervitude the other part, whoſe charms alone ought to have had the power to ſoften both the ruggedneſs of the ſoil and the ferocity of their tyrants.

Narrow and awkwardly diſpoſed ſtreets are without pavement as without police; no public edifice, no private building arreſts the eye of the traveller, and, on the ſuppoſition that the fragments of the old city had not attracted his attention, he would find no object in the preſent one that could ſupply matter for a moment's thought. Turks, Arabians, Barbareſques, Cophts, Chriſtians of Syria, and Jews, conſtituted a population which may be eſtimated at five thouſand, as far as an eſtimation can be made in a country where there is no regiſter kept of any thing. Commerce attracts thither beſides, from all the countries of the eaſt, ſtrangers whoſe reſidence is extremely tranſient.

You ſee them crowd on each other in the ſtreets, running, rather than walking: they likewiſe bawl, rather than ſpeak. I have frequently ſtopped, to conſider ſome perſons who had all the appearance of being agitated by violent rage: they gave to their voice all the intenſity which a broad and brawny cheſt could ſupply; their phyſiognomy wore all the traits of paſſion; their eyes ſparkled; violent geſtures accompanied modes of expreſſion which ſeemed ſtill more violent. I approached them, under the apprehenſion that they were going inſtantly to cut each others throats, and was aſtoniſhed to learn that they were only driving ſome petty bargain, that not a word was of a threatening complexion; that their exterior alone was in motion; that, in a word, all this vehemence was only their uſual mode of buying and ſelling.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, December.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	8	29,63	49	51	73	f	SSW 1	. little rain
	2	29,53	50,5	52	72	h	SSW 1	. gentle rain
2	8	29,28	46,5	51	73	f	N O	. little rain: very thick upward
	2	29,31	46	51,5	70	h	N O	. chiefly drizzling
3	8	29.46	41,5	51	73	f	N O	. fine
	2	29,43	49	52	68	2	NNE 1	hazy. drizzling night. not cloudy
4	8	29,54	43,5	50	70	f	NE 1	drizzling fog. fair
	2	29,54	44,5	52,5	67	h	NE 1	drizzling fog. thick upward: little rain
5	8	29,69	42	48,5	72	f	NNE 1	chiefly gentle or drizzling rain
	2	29,77	44	50	72	h	NNE 1	drizzling at times. cloudy night
6	8	30,10	44,5	49	71	f	NE 1	little wet. brighter
	2	30,12	47	50	70	4	N 2	. more cloudy. drizzling: little rain
7	8	30,11	43,5	49	71	f	NE 1	chiefly gentle rain
	2	30,08	41	50,5	71	5	NE 2	
8	8	29,88	39,5	47	67	h	NE 1	. foggy. drizzling: little rain
	2	29,81	41	49	68	h	ENE 1	drizzling. thick upward and fair eve
9	8	29,77	41	48,5	68	f	E 1	
	2	29,85	45,5	50,5	70	h	E 1	. not cloudy. cloudy. fine night
10	8	30,03	43	48,5	70	h	ENE 1	. thicker upward
	2	30,10	44,5	48,5	67	h	ENE 1	. little wet at night
11	8	30,09	41,5	46,5	69	f	ENE 1	
	2	30,07	43	48	67	h	ENE 1	. fine night but rather cloudy
12	8	30,16	38,5	46	67	f	NNE 1	not cloudy
F	2	30,19	41,5	46,5	66	2	NE 1	hazy. more cloudy night
13	8	30,23	37	45 5	65	h	NE 1	
	2	30,18	36	45,5	66	h	NE 1	
14	8	30 09	34	44	65	f	NE 1	
	2	30,04	37,5	44,5	65	h	NE 1	
15	8	29,92	38,5	45	67	f	E 1	
	2	29,89	36,5	45,5	66	h	E 1	
16	8	29,76	35	43	65	h	E 1	
	2	29,76	35	41,5	64	h	E 1	
17	8	29.71	34	45,5	63	h	NE 1	
	2	29,67	34,5	42	63	h	NE 1	: little snow
18	8	29,72	35	43,5	63	3	NNE 2	. slight fog: snow and sleet
	2	29,76	38,5	43,5	65	h	NNE 2	little snow. fine eve. snow: fine
19	8	30,23	26,5	40,5	62	f	N 1	. little snow at times
	2	30,30	29,5	41,5	64	1	NNE 2	little snow at times
20	8	30 40	25	38	64	h	NNE 1	little snow. fine
	2	30,39	28	38,5	59	2	NNE 2	cloudy eve. clear
21	8	30,37	27	38	62	h	NNE 1	
	2	30,32	31,5	38	62	h	NNE 2	. more wind and cloudy night
22	8	30,26	33	38	61	5	NE 2	. fine
	2	30,26	33	39	60	3	NE 2	. more cloudy: fine
23	8	30,23	27,5	38	62	2	NE 2	
	2	30,24	32	38	61	1	NE 1	
24	8	30,17	33,5	39	60	f	NE 1	: little snow. not cloudy
	2	30,10	35	39,5	63	h	NE 1	not cloudy. thick upward
25	8	30,02	30.5	40	61	f	W 1	
	2	30,03	34,5	40,5	61	f	WNW 1	. little snow at times
26	8	30,03	33	40	67	2	NNW 1	hazy
N	2	30,09	37	42	65	2	N 1	hazy: thick upward
27	8	30,28	31	40	64	f	N 1	not cloudy
	2	30,39	34	42	63	3	ENE 2	. clear night and morn
28	8	30,44	23	38	60	f	ENE 1	. fine
	2	30,39	28	39	59	1	ENE 1	hazy: snow
29	8	30,22	29,5	37	64	f	W 1	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,26	33.5	38	62	3	NNW 1	. little snow. cloudy night
30	8	30,37	31	38,5	62	f	NNW 1	. drizzling at times
	2	30,41	33	39	63	f	NNW 1	. fine night. clear
31	8	30,62	20,5	35,5	63	f	E 1	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,65	26	36,5	60	1	E 1	hazy

Greateſt, leaſt, and mean State of the Barometer, Thermometer, *and* Hygrometer, *and the Quantity of* Rain, *in the Year* 1799.

1799	Barometer			Therm. out			Therm. in			Hygrometer			Rain
	Great.	Leaſt	Mean	G.	L.	M.	G.	L.	M.	G.	L.	M.	Inch.
Jan.	30,51	29,34	30,02	50,5	26	37	50,5	40	44,5	70	53	62	1,02
Feb.	30,29	29,15	29,76	57	24	40	54,5	36,5	45	70	56	62	2,41
Mar.	30,40	29,69	30,09	54,5	30	40	55,5	40	46	65	49	58	0,47
April	30,28	29,34	29,89	54	30	44,5	52,5	39	47	75	45	59	1,83
May	30,49	29,42	29,63	63,5	40	52	60	47	54	68	44	57	1,89
June	30,50	29,31	30,14	78	48	59	70	54	60	60	46	53	0,59
July	30,34	29,32	29,95	73	52	62,5	69	59	65	76	45	56	3,14
Aug.	30,28	29,37	29,91	69,5	51	60,5	67	52	63,5	73	51	55	2,32
Sept.	30,49	29,17	29,89	68	47	56,5	65	55	59,5	82	49	63	3,05
Oct.	30,48	29,42	29,89	62	36	50	61	48	54	72	56	63	2,37
Nov.	30,50	28,94	29,97	58	34	46,5	57	46	51	75	57	67	1,72
Dec.	30,65	29,28	30,01	50,5	20,5	36,5	52	35,5	44	73	59	66	0,38
Whole Year.			29,85			48,8			52,8			60	21,18

REMARKS *on the State of the* AIR, VEGETATION, *&c. in* December.

THE firſt ſix days were ſimilar to the latter part of laſt month, after which colder winds commenced, and elms and other trees became wholly diveſted of their remaining leaves. A ſevere froſt commenced early on the 19th, and continued to remain at the end of the month, the laſt day of which was the coldeſt day of the year. Little rain or ſnow fell, but the moiſture of the atmoſphere was conſiderable, and more equably humid than in any other month of the year.

Rain 38 hundredths of an inch.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* December.

SCARLET fever, which appeared to languiſh during the laſt month, revived again, and became not only a very frequent but a very dangerous diſeaſe; its progreſs (particularly at the weſt end of the town) being marked by the worſt ſymptoms, and being attended by a conſiderable mortality. Smallpox likewiſe proved proportionably fatal. Meaſles prevailed very generally, and were attended with great mortality, ſixty-nine being reported, by the bills of mortality, to have died of this diſeaſe in the courſe of the month. Rheumatiſm was likewiſe frequent. Dyſenteric complaints were ſtill met with, but were neither ſo frequent nor obſtinate as during the laſt month.

The burials from the 3d to the 31ſt were 1739; and for the laſt three months 4765, being 430 more than in any quarter of the preſent year. The number of burials for the whole year is 17,848, being 1129 leſs than laſt year, of which 1000 are reported to have died of the ſmallpox, fewer than the former year by 1385. The general bill of mortality is made up from December 11, 1798, to December 10, 1799, by which there appears a diminution of 21 only in the burials of the preſent year.

General Remarks *on the* Weather *in* 1799.

THE diſtinguiſhing character of this year is its coldneſs, the mean temperature being a little ſhort of 49 degrees. There was little appearance of ſpring at the end of April, and the following month was the coldeſt May for, at leaſt, thirteen years paſt. From the 8th of July to the 16th of November was a rainy period, except the firſt ten days in September, which were fine and ſeaſonable.

ANECDOTES AND CHARACTERS.

[From M. Bertrand de Moleville's Annals of the French Revolution.]

Nothing can be more curious or important than to develope the ſecret Hiſtories of the principal Actors in a Revolution like that of France, and it is only from Annaliſts, like M. Bertrand, *that we can expect ſuch Information. In ſelecting what follows, where we have not followed the Order of Time, it was with a View, as in the Character of* Mirabeau, *to concenter the various Points of Information under one Head. In all, we have endeavoured to make Choice only of what has hitherto been unknown, and may probably lead to a Judgment as to where the many Revolutions of a fickle People are likely to lead.*

Mirabeau.

M. MALOUET, ſays M. Bertrand, relates the following anecdote of Mirabeau, which is of too intereſting a nature to be paſſed over in ſilence.

'I knew M. de Mirabeau,' ſays he, 'only by his character, from which I was greatly inclined to ſhun him. We took different ſides from the firſt ſittings of the (national) aſſembly, and I little expected to be ſought for by him, when M. du Roveral, with whom I was acquainted at Geneva, and who was then at Verſailles, told me from him, that he wiſhed very much to confer with me. I accepted an appointment at M. du Roverai's, where I found another perſon from Geneva, a M. Dumont. This was in the end of May 1789. My diſtruſt of M. de Mirabeau, kept pace with my prepoſſeſſion againſt him. I conſidered him as one of the moſt dangerous innovators, and was very much aſtoniſhed at the manner in which he accoſted me. 'I have been anxious,' ſaid he, 'for an explanation with you, becauſe in ſpite of your moderation I diſcover you to be a friend of liberty; and I am, perhaps, more alarmed than you at the ferment I ſee in the minds of men, and at the miſchiefs that may flow from it. I am not a perſon to ſell myſelf baſely to deſpotiſm: I wiſh for a free but monarchical conſtitution. I am not for ſhaking the monarchy; and if meaſures be not ſpeedily taken, the very bad heads, the great inexperience and arrogance which I perceive in our aſſembly, and the inconſiderate reſiſtance and provocation given by the two firſt orders, (the nobility and clergy) make me fear as much as you that there will be dread-

ful commotions. I therefore addreſs myſelf to you as an honeſt man. You are connected with Mr. Neckar and M. de Montmorin; you muſt know their intentions, and whether they have a plan or not. If they have a reaſonable plan, I will ſupport it.' This declaration made a great impreſſion upon me, and it was ſufficiently rational for me to believe it ſincere: Mirabeau's intellects were ſound; he did not chooſe miſchief for miſchief's ſake. Upon ſeveral important queſtions, and particularly upon the conſtitution of the commons, in a national aſſembly, his opinions were ſeen to be monarchical. I yielded to this explanation with a kind of confidence: I told him frankly that I thought as he did; that I had no doubt of the neceſſity for a plan of reform, and of a conſtitution that might ſatisfy the reaſonable expectations of the nation—but that I did not know, and very much doubted, whether or not the miniſters had any determined plan; that the heſitation I had perceived in them had alarmed me, as much as the arrogance of many of my colleagues.

'Well,' ſaid he, 'will you propoſe to them to ſee and confer with me?'

'I conſented, and informed Mr. Neckar and M. de Montmorin of the reſult of my converſation. I found them both extremely averſe to any intercourſe with Mirabeau, from his immorality, his character, and the little confidence he merited. I contended againſt all theſe objections: I repreſented, that the man who with great talents announced honeſt views; who, notwithſtanding his immorality, did not appear to have yet engaged in any party, and would give great weight to that which he ſhould embrace; and who, far from offering himſelf to be a corrupt tool, explained himſelf in ſuch a manner that it was impoſſible to propoſe to him any ſort of conditions, or fictitious part, deſerved to be heard. It was agreed that Mr. Neckar ſhould receive him the next day, and the conference took place. But Mirabeau expected they would open themſelves to him, whereas they had only conſented to hear what he had to ſay. He waited for the communication of a plan, and it is probable that they had not one to communicate. The conference accordingly was dry and ſhort: he went away diſcontented, and ſaid to me, as he came into the hall, *I go there no more, but they ſhall hear of me*; and he has been but too true to his word. There ended our intercourſe, and I was two years without ſpeaking to him.'

His CHARACTER by M. BERTRAND.

EARLY plunged by the violence of his paſſions, and by the uncommon vigour of his conſtitution, into all manner of exceſs, Mirabeau had ſhaken off the yoke of principles, and had ſubſtituted in their place ſyſtems ever dependent, as to his conduct, on the ſordid calculations of intereſt. His long and frequent impriſonments had conſiderably ſoured and hardened his diſpoſition, and in the courſe of them he had alſo acquired the habit of reflecting deeply, of conſidering a queſtion under all its points of view, and of ſupporting with equal ſtrength the affirmative or negative; whence that readineſs, that ſuperiority in reply, which gave him an immenſe advantage over all his opponents. Unfortunately, the beſt cauſe was always in his opinion that for which he was beſt paid, and his eloquence at the ſervice of the higheſt bidder. He has been unjuſtly accuſed of cowardice; on ſeveral occaſions, when his life only was at ſtake, he has given unequivocal proofs of courage. But he was often daſtardly through avarice or vanity: there was no inſult, however ſerious, which he could not bear when he had a large ſum to receive, or an important ſpeech to deliver in the aſſembly next day; and it ſeldom happened but that one or other of theſe was the caſe. Being a royaliſt on conviction, he would have ſupported the throne very powerfully, had not Mr. Neckar ſcrupled to purchaſe his ſervices; and it was not till he refuſed them, that he offered them to the democratic party, who

paid much more for them than he would have got from the court.

Mirabeau was far from being the author of all the ſpeeches he delivered from the tribune. His attendance at the aſſembly, and the parties of pleaſure, or rather of immoderate debauch, in which he was perpetually engaged, left him no time to write them, even had his head been ſufficiently at liberty to compoſe them. He had at command a certain number of writers, of more wit than fortune, who, flattered by his patronage, encouraged by his promiſes, and aſſiſted at times by trifling ſums from his purſe, did themſelves the honour of working for him. He received them at his houſe at different hours, and employed them all unknown to one another; telling each, under the ſeal of ſecrecy, that he purpoſed to make a motion of ſuch a nature, but that he had ſo little time to beſtow upon thinking of it, that it would be doing him a real friendſhip to give him ſome ideas, ſome notes which he might make uſe of, and that he had thought of him for ſuch aſſiſtance. There was not one of them but went inſtantly to work as hard as he could, to juſtify the confidence of a man ſo celebrated as Mirabeau. When they had all ſent in their work, he ſelected the beſt paſſages of each, forming a whole out of them, which he arranged and enriched in his manner with ſome pompous phraſes, and then ſet out for the aſſembly. His fellow-labourers, who got there before him, recognized each the particular paſſage he had furniſhed him with, admired in ſecret the advantage he had drawn from it, and never doubted that all the reſt of the ſpeech was his own compoſition: they wondered at his being able to produce ſo fine an oration in ſo ſhort a time, and left the hall, convinced that no man had more talents than Mirabeau. And there is no doubt in fact, that he was very able, without the aſſiſtance of any body, to make as good ſpeeches as thoſe he thus patched up: but he had a rarer talent, and the moſt uſeful to a ſtateſmen, that of appreciating the talents of others, and extracting the greateſt poſſible advantage from them. Charlemagne could hardly ſign his name, and cardinal Richelieu was an indifferent writer; yet the one was the greateſt king, and the other the ableſt miniſter France ever had.

MIRABEAU and FAYETTE.

IT was impoſſible, in fact, that there could be the ſlighteſt degree of intelligence between two men, who ſo cordially deteſted, while they thought they deſpiſed each other. Had they not been divided irrevocably by their conſtant rivalry in ambition and popularity, they muſt neceſſarily have been ſo by the immenſe diſtance at which they were placed, by the difference of their character and genius, if however we may call the petty faculties of M. de la Fayette, by the name of genius.

In an interview between them, which had been brought about by their mutual friends to reconcile them, Mirabeau having for the execution of ſome plan propoſed means of a violent nature, M. de la Fayette ſtarted, and exclaimed; 'Nay, M. de Mirabeau, it is impoſſible that a man of honour can employ ſuch means.' 'A man of honour!' replied Mirabeau: 'Ah! M. de la Fayette, I ſee that you would be a *Grandiſon Cromwell*. You will ſee where ſuch a mixture will lead you.'—Another time, upon a ſimilar occaſion, M. de la Fayette complaining bitterly of the atrocious projects which were formed againſt him by his enemies, and by Mirabeau himſelf, the latter called upon him to explain. 'Well, then, replied M. de la Fayette, 'I will tell you, ſince you force me to it, that I was thoroughly acquainted with your intention of having me aſſaſſinated.'—'I, ſir?'—'Yes, ſir, in ſuch a place, on ſuch a day, at ſuch an hour; I was ſure of it.'—'You were ſure of it!—You were ſure of it, M. de la Fayette! and I ſtill alive!—What a good creature

you are! And you think of taking the leading parts in a Revolution!'

Mirabeau's Death.

Mirabeau poſſeſſed ſo robuſt a conſtitution, ſuch extraordinary ſtrength, that it was very generally ſuſpected he had been poiſoned. But he was opened, in preſence of ſeveral of the faculty, by his own phyſician, who was affectionately attached to him, and not the ſlighteſt appearance of poiſon was perceived. For near a month before, his health, which he never took care of, had been much impaired by frequent attacks of the colic, and the diſorder that proved fatal was the natural and immediate conſequence of a debauch, which he had carried to the greateſt exceſs.

Thus died this man, who was poſſeſſed of qualities doubtleſs very rare, but the moſt fatal when not the moſt valuable. He had ſufficient energy, ſufficient ambition, and more talents than neceſſary to fill the higheſt offices with great eminence; in a word, to be a Great Man, if the violence of his paſſions and his love of money, had not always rendered him a contemptible one, and often a raſcal. It would be very difficult to ſelect a ſingle period of his life, free from errors or crimes. If he had not died ſo ſoon, he might, by important ſervices, have repaired a part of the miſchief he had done; he might perhaps have ſaved the monarchy: but Providence, who ſometimes ſuffers the wicked to triumph and to oppreſs virtue, very rarely permits the ignominious path of wickedneſs to lead to that of real glory.

Aristocrat.

One of the ſureſt means of inflaming the people, and of leading them into every exceſs, is to ſet abroad ſome phraſe, or words which they do not underſtand; for they attach ideas of their own to them, and never fail to ſelect ſuch as are moſt calculated to hurry them into the direction intended. Thus it was, that when the clergy and nobility, who were to be rendered odious, were once deſcribed to them under the name of *ariſtocrats*, they never enquired, nor do they know to this day, the real meaning of that word. All they underſtand was, that an ariſtocrat was the being moſt to be deteſted by them; and it was immediately ſuppoſed by each individual, that the vices or crimes moſt abhorred by himſelf were inherent in ariſtocrats. I once aſked a ſhoemaker, who was a royaliſt, what an ariſtocrat was? He anſwered, 'A man who does not love our good king!' Another mechanic, of a religious diſpoſition, to whom I put the ſame queſtion, told me, that an ariſtocrat did not believe in God! A third ſaid, that ariſtocrats were devils of hell, who wiſhed to ſtarve the poor!

Orators.

The national aſſembly, alarmed at the multitude and loquacity of their ſpeakers, began (July 1789) to be afraid that the conſtitution would never be ſettled, from the length of the debates that took place upon every article; and this apprehenſion made them at firſt give great applauſe to a motion for ſtopping every perſon who had ſpoken five minutes: for this purpoſe it was moved, that the preſident ſhould keep a five-minute-glaſs on his deſk. This motion, which was made by a deputy of then name of *Boucke (mouth)* a circumſtance one would have ſuppoſed enough in itſelf to have turned it into ridicule, was very ſeriouſly oppoſed by Target and others. It was curious enough to ſee this aſſembly, with the pretenſion of being the moſt auguſt in the world, ſpending hours on the queſtion, whether their members ſhould or ſhould not have the liberty of ſpeaking more than five minutes. As length, after much debating, the cauſe of eloquence or of loquacity gained a complete triumph. It was reſolved, that a double liſt of thoſe members who wiſhed to ſpeak for, or againſt a motion, ſhould be made, and that each ſhould ſpeak in his turn! A reſolution no doubt very reaſonable, but not eaſily to be adhered to in that aſſembly.

MIGHTY GOOD KIND OF PEOPLE.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

MAN is ſo habituated to live in ſociety, that external things, in general, conſtitute his principal happineſs. In a populous nation, enjoying the bleſſings of peace, ſolitude as a matter of neceſſity is unknown; it is therefore unprovided for, and we commonly live as if always to live together, and always be ſupported in body and mind by mutual interchanges of kindneſs. And this love of ſociety is ſo natural to us, that we are averſe to admit even the plea of a man who tells us that he ſhuns ſociety on purpoſe to ſhun its vices: ſuch a man will be branded with cowardice by the majority; few or none will allow him the merit of virtue. 'We cannot,' ſays a learned writer, 'be greatly virtuous, unleſs we can be greatly vicious,' and he, unqueſtionably, who reſiſts the criminal importunity, who baffles the attempts of his enemies, and who conquers 'the ſin that eaſily beſets him,' is the Chriſtian hero, and the true philoſopher.

In conſidering the infinite variety of characters mankind poſſeſs, we are led to obſerve, that thoſe characters are ſo equally mixed in all places, that each taſte is provided for with no trouble and at no expence. A village has all the ingredients of a metropolis, though each leſs in quantity; and a metropolis is a compoſition from every part of the univerſe. We obſerve, too, how natural it is for families to ſelect their particular acquaintances, and form a little circle of friends, more from ſomething ſimilar in diſpoſition, than from the connections of trade, or the ties of blood. It is not uncommon for a lady, who is aſked 'Do you know ſuch a perſon?'—To anſwer—'No; he or ſhe it not *upon my liſt*.'—And thoſe families which are not deſirous of a very extenſive acquaintance, keep ſo cloſely within themſelves, as to reſiſt the intruſion of a new perſon, or ſtranger, however agreeable they may be. A lady, the other day, ſaid to me, 'I have received an invitation to viſit Mrs. ——, but I could not think of accepting it.' 'No! ſurely, you uſed to ſay ſhe was a moſt agreeable woman.'—'True, but I am unwilling to increaſe the number of my acquaintance, as I have already as many as I can viſit or be viſited by, conſiſtently with our plan of life.'—To this I could make no anſwer, unleſs to approve the judgment that directed this lady rather to a ſelect than a general acquaintance; the real pleaſures of ſociety, may be found in the former, the tumultuous hurry of compliments only in the latter.

But of ſelect ſocieties, how various the characters, and how variouſly eſtimated! I have often conſidered a circle of acquaintances or friends, as a ſort of government of the ariſtocratic kind; the married couples are the leaders; the unmarried and the young, are the ſubjects. Priority of merit gives diſtinction, and wealth is looked up to in a ſmall room, as much as at a miniſter's levee.—Some excel in one accompliſhment, which brings them forward in this miniature life, and ſome in another—As to thoſe who have no diſtinguiſhing talent, and yet are not diſagreeable, they are generally your 'Mighty good kind of people,' whom every body reſpects, but nobody admires or envies. They are very harmleſs; no one fears from them a ſmart repartee, or the 'retort courteous;' and they do well if by this nothingneſs of character they eſcape being occaſionally (like ſir John Falſtaff) 'the cauſe that there is wit in other men.'

In all ſocieties, ſome muſt rule and ſome obey. In all polite ſocieties we bow to the government of the female ſex; and theſe we diſtinguiſh as hav-

ing more or leſs power over us, or as commanding more or leſs reſpect. But we yet exclude, 'the mighty good kind of people,' from any dominion; we owe no fealty to them—we reſpect them becauſe they are 'mighty good,' but in order to be feared or beloved, they muſt be 'mighty *clever*,' ſmart, lively, and contribute largely to the entertainment of the company.

A 'mighty good kind of woman,' may eſcape unnoticed in a company of wits from her unobtruſive manners, but a wit among a company of 'mighty good kind of women,' would ſoon find herſelf in a very awkward ſituation. Her wit would avail her nothing, becauſe it would not be underſtood—her repartees would be uſeleſs, becauſe ſhe would have nobody to anſwer; and in ſpite of the vivacity, neatneſs and point of a Congreve, ſhe would be obliged to deſcend to a proſaic diſcuſſion on making plumb-puddings without ſuet, or putting an old trimming on a new petticoat—and, perhaps, to add farther to her mortification, and remove her at a more awful diſtance from wit and humour, ſhe would be compelled to deſcant upon the weather, and deplore the failure of the wheat. But is the *wit* without any reſource in this caſe? Muſt ſhe die unrevenged for ſuch a *humdrum* evening as this? Can ſhe compenſate in no way for this conſtraint on her talents?—Yes—She has glorious revenge in ſtore; for ſhe goes next night into a company of wits, a jury of her peers; there ſhe recapitulates the buſineſs of the preceding night, and with the addition of ſome imaginary touches, and ſome well-executed mimickry, ſets the table in a roar at the expence of her tormentors. She plays with her fan, like one of them; twiſts her apron-ſtring like another; looks prim and ſtarched like a third; blows upon her tea like a fourth; takes ideal ſnuff from an imaginary box, like a fifth; and at laſt concludes with hobbling acroſs the room, like Mrs. Deborah Hipgout—adding, by way of qualification, that they are 'mighty good kind of people,' only 'one would not wiſh to be often with them.'

The 'mighty good kind of people,' are ſometimes honoured by another appellation, 'as good a kind of perſon, ma'am, as you would wiſh to ſee'—but the character is the ſame; and equally hoſtile to the lively, the loquacious, and the ſprightly, who cannot bear to glide down the ſtream of life, like motionleſs bodies from a wreck, but muſt daſh about, and raiſe a little tempeſt around them.

The reſult of all theſe remarks, however, is, that we are rather too much diſpoſed to place our happineſs in externals, and to expect that from ſociety, which ought to be ſought only in ourſelves. The excellence of moral character, the ſuperiority of genius, the ſolidity of the underſtanding, are too often ſecondary conſiderations in the choice of our acquaintances, while the poſſeſſion of accompliſhments, which at beſt are but amuſing, and of talents which perhaps may be dangerous, is a ſure recommendation. 'Mighty good kind of people,' are ſeldom objects of contempt; to a conſiderate mind, they never can be ſo; they may have qualities that are uſeful and ſolid, though not ſhining and attractive. In them we may find *friendſhip*, if not *wit*, and they may offer us the kindeſt conſolations at a time when we are not ſuſceptible of the pleaſures of ſociety.

I am, ſir, yours,

C.

ON THE SPIRIT OF CHIVALRY IN EUROPE.

[From Herder's 'Philoſophy of Hiſtory.']

ALL the Germanic tribes, that ſpread themſelves over Europe, conſiſted of warriors: and as the moſt arduous part of military ſervice fell upon the cavalry, it was natural, that theſe ſhould amply recompenſe themſelves for their ſkill in equeſtrian accompliſhments. Accordingly, a fra-

ternity of horſemen ſoon aroſe, who learned their art in due form; and as theſe were the attendants of the commander, duke, or king, a ſort of military ſchool was eſtabliſhed where the court reſided, in which the bachelor knights ſerved their apprenticeſhip. When this was accompliſhed, it is probable, that they were ſent in queſt of adventures, as the means of rendering them perfect in their trade; and, having well approved themſelves on this trial, continued to ſerve as maſters of their craft, to the privileges of which they were admitted, or as teachers to inſtruct others in thoſe arts, which themſelves had learned. It is ſcarcely poſſible, that the order of chivalry ſhould have had any other origin. The Germanic nations, who carried the corporation ſpirit into every thing, muſt have applied it particularly to an art familiar to themſelves alone: and as this was their grand and ſole art, they naturally conferred upon it all the honour, which they were too ignorant to beſtow on any other. All the laws and regulations of chivalry may be deduced from this origin.

This company of horſemen being trained for the ſervice of the prince, the firſt duty incumbent both on the bachelor and the knight was, to ſwear fealty to him. Horſemanſhip and the uſe of weapons were the exerciſes of their ſchool; whence tilts and tournaments, with other knightly ſports, as they were called, afterward aroſe. At court the young cavalier was to be about the perſon of the prince and his conſort, to be ready for courtly ſervices: hence the duty of *courteſy* toward princes and ladies, which he learned as a trade. And as, beſide his horſe and his arms, a little religion and favour with the ladies were neceſſary for him, he acquired the former from a ſhort breviary, and obtained the latter as he could, according to his abilities and the faſhion of the times. Thus originated chivalry, conſiſting of a blind faith in religion, a blind ſubmiſſion to the will of the prince, provided he required nothing inconſiſtent with the principles of the confraternity, courteouſneſs in ſervice, and gallantry toward the ladies: if a knight poſſeſſed theſe virtues, no matter whether his head contained a ſingle idea, his heart a ſingle ſentiment beſides. The lower claſſes were not his equals: the knowledge of the mechanic, the artiſt, or the man of learning, he, as a ſoldier and accompliſhed knight, could deſpiſe.

It is obvious, that this military trade muſt degenerate into unbridled barbariſm, as ſoon as it became an hereditary right, and the genuine, thorough knight, was a noble in his very cradle. Sagacious princes, who ſupported ſuch an idle train about their courts, paid conſiderable attention to the improvement of this calling, by inſtilling into the minds of the noble maſters ſome few ideas, and giving them morals, for the ſecurity of their own court, family, and country. Hence the ſevere laws by which every act of baſeneſs was ſubjected to penalties among them: hence the noble duties of ſuccouring the oppreſſed, protecting virgin innocence, treating enemies with magnanimity, and the like; the deſign of which was to obviate their burſts of violence, to temper the rudeneſs and barbarity of their manners. Theſe laws of the order were not to be obliterated from the virtuous mind, on which they had been impreſſed from the earlieſt infancy; ſo that the probity and faith almoſt mechanically diſplayed in word and deed, by every worthy knight, aſtoniſh us. Pliability of character, facility of placing a queſtion in every point of view, and fertility of ideas, were not their failings; hence the language of the middle ages was ſo ceremonious, ſtiff, and formal, that it ſeems to move as it were capariſoned in ſteel, round two or three thoughts, in all the pomp of knighthood.

Cauſes, from two extremities of the earth, concurred to give this body of chivalry more life and motion: Spain,

France, England, and Italy, but principally France, were the places where it received its chief refinements.

1. The national character and country of the Arabs rendered a kind of knight-errantry, mixed with the tenderneſs of love, ſomewhat like hereditary property to them, from the earlieſt times. They went in queſt of adventures; fought ſingle combats; and waſhed out the ſtain of every diſgrace, thrown on themſelves, or their tribe, with the blood of their enemy. Accuſtomed to hard fare and ſlight clothing, their horſe, their ſword, and the honour of their race, were dear to them above all things. And as while roaming with their tents they ſought love-adventures, and then breathed out complaints of the abſence of the object of their paſſion, in their much valued poetical language; their ſongs very ſoon fell into the regular train of chaunting their prophet, themſelves, the honours of their race, and the praiſes of their miſtreſs; without much attention to the aptneſs of tranſition. On their expeditions of conqueſt the tents of the women were intermingled with theirs: the moſt courageous animated them in battle, and in return the ſpoils of the victory were laid at their feet. And as for the time of Mohammed, the influence of the women in the formation of the Arabian empire had been great, and the orientals had no enjoyments in a period of peace, except games of paſtime, or amuſing themſelves among the women; the feſtivities of chivalry, as throwing the javelin at the ring, and other conteſts, within liſts, in the preſence of the ladies, were celebrated with great ſplendour and magnificence in Spain, during the government of the Arabs. The fair dames encouraged the champions, and rewarded them with jewels, ſcarves, or garments worked with their own hands, for theſe feſtivals were held in honour of them, and the portrait of the conqueror's miſtreſs was hung up to view, ſurrounded by the portraits of the knights he had overcome. The competitors were divided into bands, diſtinguiſhed by their colours, deviſes, and garments; poems were ſung in honour of the feaſt; and the thanks of love were the victor's nobleſt reward. Thus the more refined cuſtoms of chivalry, were evidently brought into Europe by the Arabs: what with the heavy-armed heroes of the north, remained only profeſſional manners, or mere fiction, were with theſe nature, light play, ſportive exerciſe.

Thus the gayer ſpirit of chivalry was firſt introduced among the Chriſtians in Spain, where the Arabs and Goths lived together for centuries. Here we not only diſcover the moſt ancient Chriſtian orders, eſtabliſhed either for the purpoſe of oppoſing the moors, for protecting pilgrims on their journies to Compoſtella, or for pleaſure and amuſement; but the ſpirit of chivalry was ſo deeply imprinted in the character of the Spaniards, that even knight-errant, and chevaliers of love, perfectly in the Arabian ſtyle, were not with them mere creatures of the imagination. The *romawat*, or hiſtorical poem, particularly as dedicated to the adventurers of love and chivalry; and probably the romance, as the old Amadis, and others; were the offspring of their language and way of thinking, in which Cervantes found in latter days the materials for that incomparable national romance, don Quixote de la Mancha.

But their influence was more eminently diſplayed in the fighter poetry, both here and in Sicily, the two countries of which the Arabs longeſt maintained poſſeſſion. For in the land, extending to the Ebro, which Charlemagne conquered from the Arabs, and peopled with Limoſins, or the inhabitants of the ſouth of France, the firſt poetry among the vernacular languages of Europe, the *provençal* or *limſin*, gradually formed itſelf, on either ſide the Pyrenees, in the neighbourhood of the Arabs. Tenzonets, ſonnets, idyls, villaneſcas, ſirventes, madrigals, canzonets, and other forms, invented for witty queſtions, dialogues,

and envelopes of amorous ſubjects, gave occaſion, as every thing in Europe muſt aſſume the court or corporation form, to a ſingular tribunal, the court of love, in which ladies and knights, princes and kings, were concerned as judges and parties. Before it was formed the *gaya ciencia*, the ſcience of the troubadours; firſt the purſuit of the higher nobility, but afterward, being conſidered after the European mode as an amuſement of the court, it fell into the hands of the *contadores*, *truanes*, and *boſones*, the ſtory-tellers, jeſters, and court-buffoons, where it became contemptible.

In its early flouriſhing days the poetry of the provençals had a ſoftly harmonious, pathetic and engaging ſtile, which poliſhed the heart and mind, refined the language and manners, and was the general parent of all modern European poetry. The Limoſin language extended itſelf over Languedoc, Provence, Barcelona, Arragon, Valencia, Murcia, Majorca, and Minorca; in theſe charming countries, fanned by the ſea breeze, love breathed its firſt ſigh, love poured the firſt language of delight. The poetry of Spain, France, and Italy, were its daughters: by it Petrarch was tutored, of it he was emulous; our *minneſingers* were its remote and harſh echoes, though the ſofteſt of our language (the German) is unqueſtionably theirs. The univerſally diffuſed ſpirit of chivalry tranſplanted ſome of its flowers from France and Italy into Swabia, Auſtria, and Thuringia; ſome emperors of the Stauſith family, and Hermann, landgrave of Thuringia, delighted in it, with more German princes, whoſe names would have ſunk into oblivion, had they not been tranſmitted to poſterity with ſome of their ſongs. The art, however, ſpeedily degenerated, ſinking into the deſpicable trade of vagrant *jongleurs* in France, and *meiſterſingers* in Germany. In languages ſprung like the provençal itſelf from the Latin, and known by the name of *Romanſh*, it could take deeper root: producing far more pleaſing fruits as it ſpread from Spain through France and Italy to the iſland of Sicily. In Sicily, as in Spain, aroſe the firſt Italian poetry on what was once Arabian ground.

2. What the Arabs began from the ſouth, the Normans cultivated ſtill more ſtrenuouſly from the north, in France, England, and Italy. When their romantic character, their love of adventures, heroic tales, and martial exerciſes, and their native reſpect to the women, united with the refined chivalry of the Arabs, it gained a wider ſpread, and deeper root in Europe. The tales called romances, the ground work of which exiſted long before the croiſades, now came more into vogue: for all the German nations had ever celebrated the praiſes of their heroes; and theſe ſongs and poems had maintained their ground, even amid the darkeſt ages, in the courts of the great, nay, in the convents themſelves; and in proportion as genuine hiſtory declined, men's minds were the more turned to ſpiritual legends, or romantic ſtories. Accordingly, from the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, we find this exerciſe of the human imagination more employed than any other, firſt after the African greek manner, latterly after the northern European: monks, biſhops, and ſaints, were not aſhamed of it; nay, from their mouths, true hiſtory, and the bible itſelf, ſpoke the language of romance. Hence aroſe the ſuit of Belial againſt Chriſt: hence the allegorical and myſtical perſonification of all the virtues and duties: hence the ſpiritual dramatic moralities and interludes.

Such being the general taſte of the times, the offspring of ignorance, ſuperſtition, and an awakened fancy, tales and fables were the only food of the human mind, and heroic tales were moſtly admired by the equeſtrian order. In France, the centre of this cultivation, the ſubjects moſt peculiar to it were naturally choſen, according to the two ſtreams that united here. The expedition of Charlemagne a-

gainſt the Saracens, with all the adventures ſaid to have happened in the Pyrenees, was one of theſe; what already exiſted in the country of the Normans, in Britanny, in the ancient ſtories of King Arthur, was the other. Into this were introduced, from the more recent French conſtitution, the twelve peers, with all the ſplendour of Charles and his knights, and all the ſavage deeds they had to tell of the Saracen heroes. Ogien, the Dane, Huon of Bordeaux, the children of Arinon, and various ſtories of the pilgrims and croiſaders, entered likewiſe into this: but the moſt intereſting perſons and events were always borrowed from the country of the Provençals, Guienne, Languedoc, Provence, and that part of Spain, where the Limoſin poetry flouriſhed. The ſecond ſtream, the tales of Arthur and his court, came over the ſea from Cornwall, or rather from an Utopian land, where men indulged in a peculiar ſpecies of the wonderful. The mirror of knighthood was brightly poliſhed in theſe romances; the vices and virtues of this court were clearly exhibited in the various characters of the knights of the round table: for which there was ample room in the unbounded domains of the romance of Arthur, and in ſuch ancient times.

At length from theſe two branches of romance iſſued a third, which excluded no French or Spaniſh province. Poitou, Champagne, Normandy, the foreſt of Ardennes, Flanders, nay, Mentz, Caſtile and Algarva, furniſhed knights and ſcenes to the drama: for the ignorance of the times, and the form in which the hiſtories of antiquity then appeared, permitted, or rather urged this jumble of all ages and countries. Troy and Greece, Jeruſalem and Trebiſond, what was known of old, and what report juſt bruited about, united in the garland of chivalry: and above all the claim to a deſcent from Trojan blood was a family honour, of which all the nations and empires of Europe, with its greateſt knights and potentates, were firmly perſuaded. With the Normans romance paſſed into England and Sicily; each country afforded it new heroes and new materials; but no where did it flouriſh as in France. From the coaleſcence of various cauſes, this taſte formed the way of life, language, poetry, and even religion and morals of men.

Then, if we paſs from the regions of fable into the land of hiſtory, is there a kingdom in Europe, where chivalry has bloſſomed with more elegance than in France? When, after the decline of the Carlovingian race, almoſt as many courts of little potentates, dukes, counts, or barons, ſhone forth, in power and ſplendour, as there were provinces, caſtles, and fortreſſes; every palace, every knight's ſeat, was alſo a ſchool of chivalry and honour. The national vivacity of the people; the conteſts they had maintained for centuries againſt the Arabs and Normans; the fame their forefathers had thereby acquired; the flouriſhing ſtate, to which many families had raiſed themſelves; their intermixture with the Normans themſelves; but, eſpecially, that peculiarity in the character of the nation, which diſplays itſelf throughout their whole hiſtory from the days of the Gauls; introduced into chivalry that felicity of expreſſion, that prompt elaſticity, eaſy compliance, and ſparkling grace, which, in any other nation except the French, is to be found but late, or ſeldom, if ever. How many French knights may be named, whoſe ſentiments and actions, in peace and war, throughout the whole hiſtory of France, even down to the times of royal deſpotiſm, diſplay ſo much valour, nobleneſs, and gallantry, that their families will be eternally honoured! When Fame ſounded the trump of the croiſades, the knights of France were the flower of European chivalry: French families wore the diadem of Jeruſalem and Conſtantinople; and the laws of the new ſtate were promulgated in French. The language and manners of France ſeat-

ed themſelves on the Britiſh throne, likewiſe, with William the Conqueror: and the two nations emulouſly rivalled each other in the virtues of chivalry, as the plains both of France and Paleſtine witneſſed, till England relinquiſhed to its neighbour the price of empty ſplendour, and choſe the more uſeful career of civil virtues. France firſt braved the power of the pope; and indeed in the eaſieſt way, with a degree of grace: even St. Lewis himſelf was far from a ſlave of the holy father. England, Germany, and other countries, have had more valiant kings than France; but policy firſt entered France from Italy, and there aſſumed at leaſt the garb of decorum, however diſgraceful her actions. This ſpirit imparted itſelf likewiſe to inſtitutions of learning, magiſterial dignities, and tribunals of juſtice, at firſt to their advantage, afterward to their detriment.

No wonder, then, that the French nation is become the vaineſt in Europe: almoſt from the origin of its monarchy, it has held the lamp to this quarter of the globe, and given it the tone in its moſt important revolutions. When all nations flocked together to Paleſtine, as to a grand carouſal, the German knights were led by their connexion with the French, to lay aſide their teutonic turbulence. *(furor teutonicus)* The new dreſs, likewiſe, which coats of arms and other marks of diſtinction ſpread over all Europe in the time of the croiſades, was for the moſt part of French origin.

THE NECESSITY OF ACKNOWLEDGING OUR IGNORANCE.

ALL I KNOW IS THAT I KNOW NOTHING. Anc. Phil.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

THE above frank acknowledgment of ſome ancient philoſopher, whoſe name I do not at preſent recollect, has often appeared to me as a precedent not abſolutely unworthy to be followed, even in ſuch a wiſe and knowing age as we have the happineſs to live in. There are plenty of people ready to boaſt of their knowledge, and to bring it before the public when they have a large ſtock on hand, or on other occaſions, to make a very little go a great way. We have plenty who are ready to inform us that they are the greateſt philoſophers, the greateſt hiſtorians, the greateſt poets, and the greateſt in all other branches of genius and knowledge; but we have not ſo many who are ready to acknowledge their ignorance, as the quantity of ignorance in actual exiſtence ſeems to demand.

I have often wiſhed, however, that men would be as willing to confeſs their ignorance, as well as to bring forward, in a prominent point of view, their knowledge; becauſe knowledge, where it exiſts, is ſure to be diſcovered without any extraordinary trouble, whereas ignorance requires ſo many ways to hide it, ſuch ſtrange ſhifts and expedients, ſuch evaſions, ſuch quirks and quibbles, that very few are enabled to conceal it without a much greater degree of trouble and expence than the article is fairly worth. It is, indeed, ſomewhat like telling a lie, which all *gentlemen* converſant in the art, will acknowledge to be far more difficult than the plain truth, and far more diſagreeable in its conſequences than a 'plain, unvarniſhed tale.'

When I have ſeen any of my friends attempt to conceal their ignorance (for alas! I *have* friends by whom that is thought neceſſary) I have pitied their ſtruggles, their painful efforts, and their hard pulls, yet without any deſire to help them, becauſe I conſider with what greater eaſe they might have at once confeſſed their ignorance, and there the matter would have ended. With a view, therefore,

to prevent ſuch accidents hereafter, and bring ignorance, if I can, into vogue, I have taken up my pen, Mr. Editor, and ſhall endeavour to point out ſome advantages which would attend a fair, frank, and open confeſſion of our ignorance in all caſes where we happen to be poſſeſſed of that commodity, and likewiſe ſome of the diſadvantages attending the contrary and too common practice.

It may be neceſſary to ſo great an undertaking, and, to ſome, ſo unpleaſing a taſk, that I previouſly ſtate certain privileges to which *ignorance* is entitled, and which I hope may in ſome degree tend to recommend it. In the firſt place, Ignorance is no *crime*. The law indeed ſays, '*Ignorantia neminem excuſat*,' that is, that ignorance is not to be admitted as an excuſe, but this, it muſt be obſerved, is in caſes where it is in a man's power to have acquired knowledge: for example, a man's being ignorant of the exiſtence of the income-tax will not excuſe him from paying it; and, indeed, a moſt incorrigible ignoramus he muſt be who is ignorant of this and many other things of the kind. Such an inſtance cannot well be ſuppoſed, where there are ſo many gentlemen in the neighbourhood whoſe buſineſs it is to inform people of ſuch matters, and who come round quarterly, or monthly, and are extremely obliging in their communications.

Ignorance, however, on the larger ſcale, and where a man is neither expected nor obliged to *know*, is certainly no crime, and if ten thouſand inſtances were to be given, there would not, perhaps, be a dozen out of the whole number, in which a man might not candidly confeſs his ignorance without incurring any moral guilt.

If ſuch are the privileges of ignorance, let us conſider the advantages of frankly confeſſing it. In the firſt place, if it *were* a crime, the criminality is completely done away by the confeſſion, which makes men ready enough to forgive. But another advantage ariſes, namely, that he who confeſſes his ignorance is in the readieſt way to get rid of ſo dull and troubleſome a companion, and gain knowledge in its ſtead. To be ſenſible of our defects is a ſtep toward having them ſupplied, as knowing our diſorder is a ſtep toward having it cured. A man who will not acknowledge his ignorance, and a patient who will not reveal his complaint, are equally beyond the reach of aſſiſtance.

In the ſecond place, a frank confeſſion of ignorance would prevent the ſhame which attends its being expoſed. There is a wonderful difference between the fate of an ignorant man and one who expoſes his ignorance. The former we ſeldom blame; he calls for no cenſure: he aims at no diſtinction: he claims no pre-eminence: he pretends to no more than he has: he does not elbow the wiſe. But the latter is univerſally deemed inſufferable, and every one has a fling at him. It is a great matter, therefore, to be content with our ignorance, and not attempt to paſs it upon other people for knowledge. Such falſe coin is ſure to be detected; every man is up in arms againſt ſuch impudent forgeries. To be ignorant, and confeſs it, is the ſafeſt way to avoid the ſhame and ridicule of expoſure, which ſtick to a man a much longer time than he is aware.

The reaſon why we have ſo many pretenders to knowledge, who are groſsly ignorant, is, that men take it into their heads that it is abſolutely neceſſary to know every thing. Now it unfortunately happens that the longeſt life is inſufficient to turn a man into an encyclopedia; and therefore the wiſeſt plan would be to limit our knowledge to ſuch few things as happen to be within our reach, and confeſs our ignorance in others: becauſe if we purſue this plan we ſhall get ample credit for our acquiſitions, without being blamed for unavoidable defects. We do not blame a merchant, becauſe he is unacquainted with fur-

gery, nor a ſurgeon becauſe he knows little of commerce. But if theſe characters attempt to change places, we ſhall ſoon find enough of that ignorance which is generally concealed with great pain, and expoſed with great ſhame.

It appears to be a very ſimple propoſition, that 'it is not neceſſary to know every thing,' and yet it is one of the moſt difficult to perſuade men into. Hence we meet with politicians, for example, in alehouſes, who are more wiſe and knowing than are to be found in all the councils and courts of Europe, although when carefully examined, it will probably be found, that theſe ſage pot-politicians hardly know whether Europe be an iſland or a continent. They will arrange armies in columns, who never ſaw a greater body than a volunteer *corps*, and will ſend out the whole Britiſh navy upon a ſecret expedition, without having ever ſeen a larger veſſel than a Margate hoy. In theſe, and a hundred other caſes, that might be mentioned, the frank confeſſion of ignorance would be extremely uſeful to the parties, prevent them from unneceſſarily expoſing themſelves, prevent their drinking more than their purſes or conſtitutions could afford, and would give no uneaſineſs to any perſons, except, perhaps, the publican or the brewer.

If to ſome it ſhould appear harſh that I have adviſed them to a general confeſſion of ignorance, I would wiſh to modify the injunction, by ſaying that if they were only *now* and *then* to confeſs themſelves ignorant, there would be a great and viſible change for the better in moſt companies. And while I require this in caſes of real ignorance, I have no objection to their being moſt tenacious of what they do know. Obſtinacy in caſes of this kind may be excuſed, and it would be well if it occurred on no occaſions of a different kind.

I would add, upon the whole of this ſubject, that ſtrange as it may ſeem, there are a great many things about which men employ themſelves, of our ignorance of which we need not be aſhamed, becauſe it does nos ſignify a ſtraw, whether we know them or not. I ſhall tranſcribe the ſentiments of a learned and moral author on this topic, by way of concluſion. 'There are, indeed,' ſays he, 'many ſubjects of ſtudy which ſeem but remotely allied to uſeful knowledge, and of little importance to virtue or happineſs: nor is it eaſy to forbear ſome ſallies of merriment, or expreſſions of pity, when we ſee a man wrinkled with attention, and emaciated with ſolicitude, in the inveſtigation of queſtions, of which, without viſible inconvenience, the world may expire in ignorance.'

Such, indeed, Mr. Editor, is a frequent occurrence, and if I were to be conſulted in many hundred ſuch caſes, where the generality of people ſtudy to be knowing, I would ſay, 'ſtick to your ignorance, and be not aſhamed of it in any caſe that does not concern your ſituation in life, your well-being, your happineſs and your virtue.' I am, ſir, yours, &c.

SATIRICUS.

ILLUSTRATIONS *of the* PROGRESS *of* DRESS *in* ENGLAND *from the Earlieſt Times.*

[From Strutt's View of the Dreſs and Habits of the People of England.]

THE HORNED HEAD-DRESS OF THE LADIES IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

ABOUT this time a prepoſterous kind of head-dreſs made its appearance among the fair ſex, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of 'the horned head-dreſs,' which is ſeverely reprobated by John de Meun, in his poem called the Codicil: he ſpeaks to this effect: 'If I dare ſay it, without making them,' that is the ladies,

'angry, I ſhould diſpraiſe their hoſing, their veſture, their girding, their head-dreſſes, their hoods thrown back, with their *horns* elevated and brought forward, as if it were to wound us. I know not whether they call them *gallowſes* or *brackets*, that prop up the horns, which they think are ſo handſome; but of this I am certain, that Saint Eliſabeth obtained not paradiſe by the wearing of ſuch trumpery.'—He then proceeds to deride the exceſſive width of theſe head-dreſſes, and ſpeaks of the quantity of fine linen that was uſed to decorate them, with much diſapprobation.

The knight, who has already furniſhed us ſo largely with ſelections *, calls in, upon this occaſion, the authority of a 'holy biſhop,' who, declaiming from the pulpit againſt the faſhionable foibles of the fair ſex, accuſes them of being marvellouſly arrayed in divers and quaint manners, and particularly with *high horns*. The prelate then gravely, with more zeal perchance than learning, attributes the cauſe of the deluge to the pride and diſguiſing of the women, who, he tells us, were thereby led aſtray into the paths of vice: but, reſuming the former ſubject, he compares the ladies of his day to horned ſnails, to harts, and to unicorns; declaring that, by ſuch unnatural adjuſtments, they mocked God; and proceeds to relate a ſtory of a gentlewoman, who came to a feaſt, having her head ſo ſtrangely attired with long pins, that her head-dreſs reſembled a gibbet; 'and ſo,' adds he, 'ſhe was ſcorned by all the company, who ridiculed her taſte, and ſaid, ſhe carried a *gallows* upon her head.' All the remonſtrances from the pulpit, the admonitions from the moral writers, and the ſatirical reflections of the poets, were not ſufficiently powerful to conquer the prevalency of this faſhion, or, at leaſt, not very haſtily; for the horned head-dreſs maintained its ground nearly two centuries. Lidgate, the monk of Bury, who lived in the reign of Henry VI, has written a long ballad upon this ſubject; and he therein endeavours to perſuade the ladies to lay aſide their horns, which, he inſiſts upon, are no addition to their beauty; for beauty, adds he, will ſhow itſelf, though the horns be caſt away. He uſes alſo another argument, namely, the example of the Virgin Mary, who never ſubmitted to any ſuch diſgaiſement.

At the commencement of the fifteenth century, this ſpecies of head-dreſs was extended to a prepoſterous ſize. We learn, that, when Iſabel of Bavaria, the vain and luxurious conſort of Charles VI of France, kept her court at Vincennes, it was neceſſary to make all the doors in the palace higher and wider, to admit the head-dreſſes of the queen and her ladies. Indeed, it is by no means wonderful, that large coiffures ſhould have continued long in faſhion, eſpecially among the women of high rank, when it is conſidered, that they admitted of a proportionable variety of ornaments, and afforded an opportunity for the ladies of diſplaying their taſte to greater advantage than a ſmaller compaſs would admit of.

A foreign author † ſpeaks of the horned head-dreſs, as it was worn at Lyons, in the following manner: 'It conſiſted of a mixture of woollen cloth and ſilk, with two horns reſembling turrets, and was cut and pinked after the faſhion of a German hood, or criſped like the belly of a calf.' But, at the time of his writing, this attire ſeems to have been upon the decline; the more faſhionable one he thus deſcribes: 'The ladies ornamented their heads with certain rolls of linen, pointed like ſteeples, generally half, and ſometimes three quarters, of an ell in height.' Theſe were called by

* From a work in MS. compiled toward the concluſion of the fourteenth century, for the uſe of three young ladies, daughters of a knight in Normandy; in the Harleian Library at the Britiſh Muſeum, marked 1761.

† Paradin, Hiſt. de Lyons, p. 271. Theſe faſhions were in uſe in the year 1761.

ſome, great butterflies, from having two long wings on each ſide reſembling thoſe of that inſect. The high cap was covered with a fine piece of lawn hanging down to the ground, the greater part of which was tucked under the arm. The ladies of a middle rank wore caps of cloth, conſiſting of ſeveral breadths or bands, twiſted round the head, with two wings on the ſide like aſſes' ears; others, again, of a higher condition, wore caps of black velvet, half a yard high, which in theſe days would appear very ſtrange and unſeemly. 'It is no eaſy matter,' continues the author, 'to give a proper deſcription in writing of the different faſhions in the dreſſes of the ladies;' and he refers the readers to the ancient tapeſtry and painted glaſs, in which they may ſee them more perfectly repreſented: to theſe he might have added the illuminated manuſcripts, wherein they are frequently enough to be met with.

CUMBERSOME AND EXTRAVAGANT DRESSES OF THE MEN, IN THE TIME OF HENRY IV.

HENRY IV, ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, revived the ſumptuary ſtatutes of Edward III; but, if they had then been ſtrenuouſly carried into execution, Thomas Occliff, who wrote in the reign of that monarch, would not have had the occaſion of complaint which he exhibits againſt the extravagance of dreſs exiſtent in his time. This poet, after enumerating many things requiring amendment, comes to the ſubject of apparel; 'and this,' ſays he, 'in my thinking, is an evil, to ſee one walking in gownes of ſcarlet twelve yards wide, with ſleeves reaching to the ground, and lined with fur, worth twenty pounds, or more; at the ſame time, if he had only been maſter of what he paid for, he would not have had enough to have lined a hood.'—He then proceeds to condemn the pride of the lower claſſes of the people, for imitating the faſhions and extravagances of the rich; 'and certainly,' ſays he, 'the *great lords* are to blame, if I dare ſay ſo much, to permit their dependants to imitate them in their dreſs. In former time, perſons of rank were known by their apparel; but, at preſent, it is very difficult to diſtinguiſh the nobleman from one of low degree.' He then conſiders the 'foule waſte of cloth' attendant upon theſe luxurious faſhions, and aſſures us, that no leſs than a yard of broad cloth was expended for one man's tippet. Returning to his former argument, that noblemen ought not to encourage their ſervants in the uſage of ſuch extravagant dreſſes, he ſays, 'If the maſter ſhould ſtumble as he walks, how can his ſervant afford him any aſſiſtance, while both his hands have full employment in holding up the long ſleeves with which his arms are encumbered *?' He then adds, that 'the taylors muſt ſoon ſhape their garments in the open field, for want of room to cut them in their own houſes; becauſe that man is beſt reſpected who bears upon his back, at one time, the greateſt quantity of cloth and of fur.'

From the following obſervation the reader may, perchance, ſuſpect the reformiſt of loving his belly more than his back: 'In days of old,' ſays

* They are thus deſcribed by another author: '*Maxime togatorum cum profundis et latis, manicis, vocatis vulgariter* pokys, *ad modum* bagpipe *formatis*: wearing gowns with deep wide ſleeves, commonly called *pokys*, ſhaped like a *bagpipe*, and worn indifferently both by ſervants and maſters. They are alſo rightly denominated devils' receptacles, *receptacula demontorum rectè dici*; for, whatever could be ſtolen, was popped into them. Some were ſo long and wide that they reached to the feet, others to the knees, and were full of ſlits. As the ſervants were bringing up pottage and ſauces, or any other liquors, thoſe ſleeves would go into them, and have the firſt taſte. And all that they could procure was ſpent to clothe their uncurable carcaſes with thoſe *pokys* or *ſleeves*, while the reſt of their habit was ſhort.'

he, 'when men were clad in a more ſimple manner, there was abundance of good eating; but now they clothe themſelves in ſuch an expenſive manner, that the former hoſpitality is baniſhed from their houſes.' He then laments, 'that a nobleman cannot adopt a new guiſe, or faſhion, but that a knave will follow his example;' and, ſpeaking in commendation of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, he informs us, that 'his garments were not too wide, and yet they became him wondrouſly well.' 'Now, would to God!' continues he, 'this waſte of cloth and pride were exiled from us for ever; for, now we have little need of brooms in the land to ſweep away the filth from the ſtreet, becauſe the ſide ſleeves of pennyleſs grooms will gather it up, if it ſhould be either wet or dry.' He then addreſſes himſelf, by apoſtrophe, to his country, and adviſes a reformation of all theſe abuſes: his ſatirical concluſion, however, I hope, is inapplicable to any time but his own. 'If,' ſays he, 'a man of abilities, meanly clad, ſhould ſeek acceſs to the preſence of a nobleman, he would be denied on the account of his clothing; but, on the contrary, a man who, by flattery and the meaneſt ſervility, can procure himſelf the moſt faſhionable apparel, he ſhall be received with great honour.'

TRUNK BREECHES OR SLOPS—THE VARDINGALE.

The next remarkable innovation (at the beginning of the reign of Eliſabeth) was the trunk breeches, or ſlops, which were gradually ſwelled to an enormous ſize: theſe breeches, we are told, were ſtuffed out with rags, wool, tow, or hair, and ſometimes, indeed, with articles of a more cumbrous nature, if the ſtory related by Holingſhed be founded upon fact; wherein a man is ſaid to have exhibited the whole of his bed and table furniture, taken from thoſe extenſive receptacles. The ladies alſo, on their parts, extended their garments from the hips with foxes tails and *bum-rolls*, as they were called; but, finding that, by ſuch moderation, they could keep no pace with the vaſt protuberance of the trunk ſlops, they introduced the great and ſtately vardingales, or fardingales, which ſuperſeded all former inventions, and gave them the power of appearing as large as they pleaſed.

The vardingale afforded the ladies a great opportunity of diſplaying their jewels, and the other ornamental parts of their dreſs, to the utmoſt advantage, and, for that reaſon, I preſume, obtained the ſuperiority over the cloſe habits and the more ſimple imitations of nature; and what, indeed, was the court-dreſs very lately, but the vardingale differently modified, being compreſſed before and behind, and proportionably extended at the ſides? Bulwer gives us the following anecdote relative to this unnatural habit:—When ſir Peter Wych was ambaſſador to the grand ſeignor from king James I, his lady was with him at Conſtantinople; and the ſultaneſs, having heard much of her, deſired to ſee her: whereupon, lady Wych, accompanied with her waiting women, all of them neatly dreſſed in their great vardingales, which was the court-dreſs of the Engliſh ladies of that time, waited upon her highneſs. The ſultaneſs received her with great reſpect; but, wondering much at the extenſion of her hips, inquired if that ſhape was peculiar to the women of England: to which the lady replied, that the Engliſh women did not differ in ſhape from thoſe of other countries; and, by explaining to her the nature of the dreſs, convinced the ſultaneſs, that ſhe and her companions were not really ſo deformed as they appeared to be.

ANECDOTE OF SIR PHILIP CALTHROP AND JOHN DRAKES.

THE propenſity of perſons of low eſtate to imitate the faſhions of thoſe above them, has been adverted to ſeveral times in the courſe of this

chapter; and now, by way of concluſion, I ſhall add a ſhort ſtory from Camden, in which this propenſity is very properly ridiculed. 'I will tell you,' ſays the venerable antiquary, 'how ſir Philip Calthrop purged John Drakes, the ſhoemaker of Norwich, in the time of Henry VIII, of the proud humour which our people have to be of the gentleman's cut.—This knight bought on a time as much fine French tawny cloth as ſhould make him a gown, and ſent it to his taylor's to be made. John Drakes, a ſhoemaker, of that town, coming to the ſaid taylor's, and ſeeing the knight's gown-cloth lying there, and liking it well, cauſed the taylor to buy for him as much of the ſame cloth, at the like price, to the ſame intent; and, further, he bade him make it in the ſame faſhion that the knight would have his made of. Not long after, the knight coming to the taylor to take meaſure of his gown, he perceived the like gown-cloth lying there, and aſked the taylor whoſe it was. "It belongs," quoth the taylor, "to John Drakes, who will have it made in the ſelf ſame faſhion that yours is made of."—"Well," ſaid the knight, "in good time be it: I will have mine as full of cuts as thy ſhears can make it."—"It ſhall be done," ſaid the taylor. Whereupon, becauſe the time drew near, he made haſte to finiſh both their garments. John Drakes had no time to go to the taylor's till Chriſtmas-day, for ſerving of his cuſtomers, when he had hoped to have worn his gown; perceiving the ſame to be full of cuts, he began to ſwear at the taylor for making his gown after that ſort. "I have done nothing," quoth the taylor, "but what you bade me; for, as ſir Philip Calthrop's gown is, even ſo have I made yours."—"By my latchet, quoth John Drakes, "I will never wear a gentleman's faſhion again".'

MINSTRELS AND PLAYERS.

MINSTRELS and players were formerly retainers in the houſes of the nobility: they wore the livery and badges of the maſter to whom they belonged; and, under that ſanction, travelling from place to place, exhibited their performances for hire. In the reign of queen Mary, a remonſtrance from the privy council was preſented to the lord preſident of the north, ſtating, 'that certain lewd,' that is, diſſolute or ignorant, 'perſons, to the number of ſix or ſeven in a company, naming themſelves to be the ſervants of ſir Francis Lake, and wearing his livery, or badge, upon their ſleeves, have wandered about theſe north parts, repreſenting certain plays and interludes, reflecting on her majeſty and king Philip, and the formalities of the maſs.'—Theſe, according to Warton, were 'family-minſtrels, or players, who were conſtantly diſtinguiſhed by their maſter's livery or badge.'—In conſequence of the above remonſtrance, ſir Francis Lake was enjoined to correct his ſervants ſo offending.

'In former times,' ſays an author who wrote in the reign of queen Eliſabeth, 'a nobleman's houſe was a common wealthe in itſelfe; but ſince the reteining of theſe caterpillers,' meaning the vagrant players, 'the credite of noblemen hath decaied, and they are thought to be covetous, by permitting their ſervants, which cannot live of themſelves, and whome, for neerneſs, they will not maintain, to live at the devotion or almes of other men, paſſing from countrie to countrie, from one gentleman's houſe to another, offering their ſervice; which is a kind of beggarie; who, indeede, to ſpeake more truſie, are become beggers for their ſervants: for, commonlie the good wil men beare to their lordes makes them drawe the ſtringes of their purſes to extend their liberalities to them, where otherwiſe they would not.'

Under the appellation of minſtrels, no doubt, was included all ſuch perſons as ſtudied muſic profeſſionally, and performed for pay. It ſeems cer-

tain, that ſome peculiar kind of dreſs was generally adopted by theſe melodious itinerants; and, from ſeeing them frequently depicted in habits altogether different from thoſe in common uſage, I am led to conclude that, in addition to their muſical talents, they often exhibited certain tricks of buffoonery, to which the quaintneſs of their dreſs was accommodated; we may then conſider them as a kind of mimics; and probably they were the primitive introducers of the ſtrange diſguiſements that make up the medley of a modern maſquerade; and, by ſuch a double exhibition, the exertions of a ſingle minſtrel might afford no ſmall degree of merriment to minds unprepared for any ſuperior ſpecies of entertainment. We frequently find them in company with other drolls, whoſe performances conſiſted of dancing, of tumbling, or of balancing, to the muſic. It appears, indeed, that dancing and tumbling, in former times, differed but little, if at all, from each other; at leaſt, they ſeem to be often confounded: a remarkable inſtance occurs to my memory.—In a ſplendid manuſcript, written and illuminated at the commencement of the thirteenth century, which contains a ſhort Bible hiſtory, embelliſhed with many curious paintings, there is one picture repreſenting the daughter of Herodias in the preſence of Herod; but, inſtead of *dancing*, according to our acceptation of the word, ſhe is literally *tumbling*, or making a ſomerſault, with her hands upon the ground.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XIX.

——— What is here?
Gold? Yellow, glittering, precious gold —
Thus, much of this will make black, white; foul, fair;
Wrong, right; baſe, noble; old, young; coward, valiant. SHAKS.

IN works of natural hiſtory or chymiſtry, we read that '*Gold* is a yellow metal, of much greater ſpecific gravity than any other body in nature, except *platina*; that it is ſoft, very tough, ductile and malleable; unalterable and fixed, whether expoſed to the atmoſphere, or to the ſtrongeſt heat of furnaces; that the moſt powerful burning mirrors are ſaid to have volatilized it,' &c. &c. &c. with five or ſix pages more of ſuch properties as the above; after detailing all which, the philoſopher thinks he has done his duty, and takes leave of his reader, who remains as ignorant as he was before he took up the book, with reſpect to the moſt *common* qualities of this wonderful metal.

I have, indeed, been often ſurpriſed that we ſhould yet be deficient in a complete hiſtory of *gold*, an article which every man wiſhes to know ſomething of, and which many have ſpent their whole lives in acquiring—an article, the uſes and properties of which are underſtood in every quarter of the globe, but particularly in the civilized part of it, and which poſſeſſes ſuch extraordinary powers, that few things have been found capable of reſiſting it. One reaſon, I humbly apprehend, why we have remained ſo long without a good hiſtory of this metal is, that chymiſts and philoſophers have beſtowed all their conſideration upon certain qualities inherent in gold, without demonſtrating, perhaps without knowing, that it communicates theſe properties to the human body by the touch, and ſo from the body to the mind. Thus it would be a matter of importance to *goldſmiths* only to know that gold is *tough* and *ductile*, and the moſt *malleable* of all metals, if we did not know at the

ſame time, that the men who have taken it in conſiderable quantities, become alſo, according to the doſe, *tough*, or *ductile*, or *malleable*, at the pleaſure of him who wiſhes to mould them into certain ſhapes. The property therefore ſuppoſed to be in the metal itſelf, is in fact the property it gives out, or communicates. I hope, therefore, to be able in ſome degree to ſupply the defects of our common treatiſes upon gold, by a few obſervations on its effects, firſt on the human body, and then on the human mind, which have been long confirmed by experience, and will be found the ſame under all climates, and in all ſituations. And firſt, of its effects on the body.

Taken in conſiderable quantities, it has a tendency to raiſe the head erect, and to make the joints firm and ſtiff, ſo that the patient appears as if perpendicular iron rods went through the body, and kept it comparatively ſtrait, if not perfectly *upright*. The gait is ſtately, and with much aſſumed, if not natural dignity, and a kind of ſtrut is viſible in every motion. In this ſituation, it is remarkable that the eyes are placed upwards, although the affections are obviouſly placed downward, a fact to which we ſhall have occaſion more particularly to advert, when we come to ſpeak of its effects on the mind. But what is perhaps ſomewhat ſingular in this medicine is, that the erection of the head, and the ſtiffneſs of the joints, do not take place until ſome time after the doſe has been received; for at the moment of receiving it, the body is apt to bow and bend more than ordinary, and the joints are remarkably flexible, and will move in almoſt any direction. Another property is, that when the effect of the doſe has worn off (and ſometimes this metal diſappears very ſoon) the erection of the head and the other perpendicular ſymptoms diſappear at the ſame time, and the body gets into its bending, flexible way, until another doſe can be procured, when every part reſumes its former poſture.

A ſecond effect of gold upon the body, relates to the *ſenſes*. The *eyes* are particularly affected; every thing is ſeen in a different light, and ſome objects are not ſeen at all, ſo that the party appears to be extremely ſhort-ſighted, if not quite blind. Perhaps other circumſtances contribute to the operation of gold in this reſpect. For example, if a perſon, after taking a conſiderable quantity of it, be approached, whether nearly or at a diſtance, by a claimant or a poor relation, he becomes inſtantly blind; and ſome, it is ſaid, have been ſo afflicted with dimneſs of ſight, as not to be able to deſcry their neareſt relations. Thus much as to ſight—As to the other ſenſes, the *ſmell* becomes very nice and delicate, and the *touch* is particularly fine, abounding in exquiſite perceptions, which can be eaſier *counted* than expreſſed. The *taſte* is alſo greatly changed; there is a loathing of plain food, and particularly what the party was formerly uſed to, in room of which are ſubſtituted all the varieties of the moſt refined cookery. The *hearing* likewiſe is conſiderably affected. Sometimes, indeed, deafneſs comes on, eſpecially where there has been a previous blindneſs. The ſame objects which the patient cannot ſee, he alſo cannot hear; in all matters, however, which concern the continuation of the medicine and the increaſe of the doſe, his hearing is more acute than ever.—Such are ſome of the effects of this wonderful metal upon the body. To theſe we may add, that with all its advantages, it has often a tendency to ſhorten life, and that in no caſe of ſickneſs, we are told, is it found to act at all as a remedy. The writers, philoſophers, and chymiſts abovementioned, tell us that 'it was formerly uſed in medicine, and great virtues were aſcribed to it. But now the beſt practitioners allow that it is either *inactive* or *dangerous*.' This does not appear to me to be ſtrictly correct. It may not itſelf produce the healing effect *directly*, but it certainly does ſo, as far as healing is practicable, in

a way not very circuitous. One or two pieces of it, cut in a round form, and ſtamped with the image of the king of the country, if given to a *ſkilful ſtander-by*, has been known to produce very happy effects; but, as I am informed, in order to complete the cure, this quantity muſt be repeated every day. However, there is ſome poſitive information on this ſubject in a valuable work, written by the late celebrated Dr. James, which I ſhall tranſcribe, for the benefit of my readers, and to render this *Eſſay on Gold* more complete.

'The uſe,' ſays this learned phyſician, 'of gold in phyſic was unknown to the ancient Greeks. The Arabians firſt talked of its medicinal virtues, and mixed it in their compoſitions, being previouſly reduced to *thin leaves*, upon a perſuaſion that it *comforted* the *heart*, and *exhilarated* the *ſpirits*; and that therefore it was proper in palpitations of the heart, and in melancholies. The chymiſts add further, that a moſt powerful fixed ſulphur is contained in gold, which, if it be *mixed with the blood*, preſerves it from all *corruption*, and reſtores and revivifies human nature in the ſame manner as the ſun, the great original of this ſulphur, enlivens nature.'

Now my readers, I preſume, will agree with me, that this paſſage ſtrongly confirms the opinion I have already given of the effects of gold upon the body. Its being reduced to *thin leaves* is evidently the origin of theſe thin round pieces, which we now adminiſter; and its effects in *purifying* the *blood* are too commonly known to require a particular mention, ſo true is it, that the blood of a *ſcurvy peaſant* becomes, after a few applications, perfectly pure and gentleman-like. But what Dr. James has ſaid of its *comforting* the *heart*, and *exhilarating* the *ſpirits*, leads me in the ſecond place to conſider the effects of this wonderful metal upon the mind.

It appears by the above account, that we owe to the Arabians the diſcovery, that gold comforts the heart and exhilarates the ſpirits, and it is much to the credit of ſucceeding generations, that mankind were always too wiſe to let ſuch a diſcovery be buried in oblivion. Many of the diſcoveries of the ancients have been loſt. It is by gueſs only that we can form an opinion of Archimedes' wonderful machines, nor of the armour, art of embalming, and many other articles of ancient genius; but that gold comforts the heart, and exhilarates the ſpirits, is a diſcovery which was ſaved from the general wreck, ſurvived the dark ages, and which, in all human probability, will be handed down unimpaired to the lateſt poſterity.

That gold has this effect, is ſo obvious, that it would be a mere waſte of time, perhaps an impeachment of the *feelings* of my readers, were I to offer proofs of the fact. It may be neceſſary, however, to obſerve, that in caſes of this kind, the doſes vary exceedingly. In ſome, particularly in very young perſons, a ſmall quantity will be ſufficient. Perſons, likewiſe, who have never taken the medicine before, are affected by a very ſmall doſe, judiciouſly adminiſtered. To others, who have been in the habit of quacking themſelves, as it is called, much larger doſes may be neceſſary; and this is ſaid to be the caſe with very old men, who are difficult to work upon, and who yet contract ſuch a fondneſs for it, that they have been known to die in the very act of *graſping* it. In this, as in other caſes, the effect to be produced, muſt depend much on a judicious *adminiſtration!*

It is to be regretted, however, that in ſpeaking of the effects of this metal, both on the mind and body, I am obliged to add that it does not always produce *good*. In particular, my readers may recollect, that in treating on the eyes, I obſerved, that though the eyes are upward, the affections are downwards, which is unhappily the fact. Thoſe who take frequent doſes are liable to a groveling, downward motion, which ſeems to fix them to the earth, as if they had nothing to

do in this world but to look at the ground, and then be buried under it, and nothing to do in the next world at all.

Another effect of this metal is *want* of *memory*, which is a common caſe with thoſe who take it in large quantities; and this defect of memory is ſo ſtrong, that they not only forget other people, but themſelves alſo, and every thing they have ſaid or done, though perhaps not many days before. But this conſequence of gold is ſo intimately connected with the loſs of ſight and hearing, that I ſhall not expatiate farther upon it, as they ſeem to form one and the ſame diſeaſe, occaſioned by the ſame cauſe.

In ſome perſons, this precious metal has produced *dumbneſs*, which happens to be a very remarkable proof of its ſtrength, as the caſes in which it produces ſuch an effect, are where there was previouſly a moſt troubleſome and vexatious loquacity and volubility of tongue.—On the other hand, it has been known to looſen the tongues of thoſe who appeared to have very little uſe of that member. This occurs, as I am credibly informed, in thoſe caſes where a doſe, given for another purpoſe, has proved too ſmall. I am likewiſe told that Dr. Pitt, an eminent phyſician in Downing ſtreet, has many *valuable materials* for an *eſſay* on this very ſubject.

As to the effects of gold on the mind, in a *moral* ſenſe, I am not ſufficiently acquainted with the matter to ſpeak decidedly. Reaſoning from analogy in other caſes, and from what I have already advanced, its *moral* effects do not appear to be great, although it is certain we have a few very well atteſted caſes, where it has been employed with the happieſt ſucceſs. But this, I apprehend, was owing to its being adminiſtered in ſmall doſes, where there was a prediſpoſition to moral goodneſs. In thoſe who have an immoderate thirſt for it, and who can never be ſatisfied, it would be fooliſh to expect ſuch conſequences.

Philoſophers tell us, that the ſtrongeſt heat of any furnace, does not change the metallic properties of gold—a circumſtance which diſtinguiſhes it from all other mineral ſubſtances. We know alſo that it produces the ſame effects in all countries, and in all climates, and has continued to retain its properties from the creation of the world to the year of our Lord eighteen hundred. This, merely as a matter of *curioſity*, ought to excuſe my devoting a whole paper to ſuch a metal. There are ſome who aſſert that the ſame properties reſide in its ſiſter metal, *ſilver*. The experiments which have been tried, however, do not confirm this. It may have the *ſame* properties, but they exiſt in a degree ſo far inferior, that ſilver is rarely made of uſe to produce the effects expected from gold.

I have only to add, in caſe any reader ſhould think my opinion worth following, that after all which has been ſaid, done, or written upon this ſubject, it will be found that the metal we have deſcribed always produces the beſt effects when taken in ſmall doſes, and that regularly, and, I was going to add, imperceptibly. Very large doſes never fail to produce a bad effect, eſpecially if taken ſuddenly and unexpectedly, in which caſe they have ſometimes been fatal. Laſtly, in whatever quantity we take this medicine, we ought to attend vere carefully to the operation of one doſe, before we deſire another; for what is intended for man's daily bread, ought never to be converted into his poiſon.

Having thus humbly attempted to ſupply what I conſidered as a defect in the writings of all the philoſophers and chymiſts who have treated on gold, I muſt, in juſtice to the celebrated Henry Fielding, ſubjoin, that as far back as the year 1742-3, he publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, 'Several Papers relating to the Terreſtrial Chryſipus, Golden-foot, or Guinea, an inſect, or vegetable, which has this ſurpriſing property, that being cut into ſeveral

The Crested Peacock.

pieces, each piece lives, and in a ſhort time becomes as perfect an inſect, or vegetable, as that of which it was originally only a part.

Although, in this elaborate work, Mr. Fielding conſiders the ſubject as belonging to the animal, or vegetable kingdom, I am happy to ſay, that there is a perfect coincidence of opinion between us, as will be evident from the following ſhort extract, in which he gives the chief qualities of the Chryſipus, or Guinea.

'Firſt, a ſingle chryſipus ſtuck on to the finger, will make a man talk for a full hour, nay, will make him ſay whatever the perſon who ſticks it on deſires: and again, if you deſire ſilence, it will as effectually ſtop the moſt loquacious tongue. Sometimes, indeed, one or two, or even twenty, are not ſufficient; but if you apply the proper number, they ſeldom or ever fail of ſucceſs. It will likewiſe make men blind or deaf, as you think proper; and all this without doing the leaſt injury to the ſeveral organs.

'Secondly, It hath a moſt miraculous quality of turning black into white, or white into black. Indeed it hath the powers of the priſmatic glaſs, and can, from any object, reflect what colour it pleaſes.

'Thirdly, It is the ſtrongeſt love-powder in the world, and hath ſuch efficacy on the female ſex, that it hath often produced love in the fineſt women to the moſt worthleſs and ugly, old, and decrepit of our ſex.—To give the ſtrongeſt idea in one inſtance, of the ſalubrious quality of the chryſipus: it is a medicine which the phyſicians are ſo fond of taking themſelves, that few of them care to viſit a patient, without ſwallowing a doſe of it*.

* Fielding's Works, vol. 8, page 14, 15.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE PEACOCK.

With an Engraving of that Bird, beautifully coloured.

The preſent is the firſt of a Series of Engravings and Deſcriptions, intended to be given in our Magazine, of the moſt remarkable BRITISH BIRDS, *or of thoſe which either conſtantly reſide in, or occaſionally viſit our Iſland. We mean not to follow any particular Arrangement, but to give a popular, rather than a ſcientific Account of them. This Undertaking has been made, not only at the Requeſt of many of our Correſpondents, but from a Perſuaſion, that it will tend to give a pleaſing Variety to the Contents of our Miſcellany.*

THE *Pavo*, or Peacock, is a genus belonging to the Linnean order of *Gallinæ*. The head is covered with feathers which bend backward; the feathers of the tail are very long, and beautifully variegated with eyes of different colours. Latham enumerates eight ſpecies.

The *Pavo Criſtatus*, or *Creſted Peacock*, has a compreſſed creſt and ſolitary ſpurs. It is about the ſize of a common turkey; the length from the tip of the bill to the end of the tail, being three feet eight inches. The bill is nearly two inches long, and is of a brown colour. On the crown there is a ſort of creſt, compoſed of twenty-four feathers, which are not webbed, except at the ends, which are gilded green. The ſhafts are of a whitiſh colour; and the head, neck and breaſt, are of a green gold colour. Over the eye there is a ſtreak of white, and beneath there is the ſame. The back and rump are of a green gold colour, gloſſed over with copper; the feathers are diſtinct, and lie over one another like ſhells. Above the tail, ſprings an inimitable ſet of long beautiful feathers, adorned with a variegated eye at the end of each; theſe reach conſiderably beyond the tail; and the

longeſt of them, in many birds, are four feet and a half in length. This beautiful train, or tail, as it is falſely called, may be expanded quite to a perpendicular upward, at the will of the bird. The true tail is hid beneath this groupe of feathers, and conſiſts of eighteen grey brown feathers, one foot and a half long, marked on the ſides with rufous grey, the ſcapulars and leſſer wing coverts are reddiſh cream colour, variegated with black; the middle coverts deep blue, gloſſed with green gold; the greateſt and baſtard wings rufous; the quills are alſo rufous; ſome of them variegated with rufous, blackiſh and green; the belly greeniſh black; the thighs yellowiſh; the legs ſtout: thoſe of the male furniſhed with a ſtrong ſpur three quarters of an inch in length, of a grey brown colour.

The female is rather leſs than the male. The train is very ſhort, being much ſhorter than the tail, and ſcarcely longer than its coverts; neither are the feathers furniſhed with eyes. The creſt on the head is ſimilar to that on the head of the male: the ſides of the head have a greater portion of white: the throat and neck are green; the reſt of the body and wings are aſhey-brown; the breaſt is fringed with white; the bill is the ſame; the legs are as in the male; but the ſpur is generally wanting. In ſome male birds, the wing coverts and ſcapulars are of a fine deep blue green, very gloſſy; but the outer edge of the wing and quills are of the common colour. The matchleſs plumage of the peacock, ſays Buffon, ſeems to combine all that delights the eye in the ſoft and delicate tints of the fineſt flowers; all that dazzles it in the ſparkling luſtre of the gems; and all that aſtoniſhes it in the grand diſplay of the rainbow.

This bird, now ſo common in Europe, is of eaſtern origin, being a native of India. They are found wild in the iſlands of Ceylon and Java, in the Eaſt Indies, and at St. Helena, at Barbuda, and other Weſt-India iſlands. The are not natural to China; but they are found in many places of Aſia and Africa. They are, however, no where ſo large or ſo fine as in India, in the neighbourhood of the Ganges, from whence, by degrees, they have ſpread into all parts, increaſing in a wild ſtate in the warmer climes; but wanting ſome care in the colder regions. In ours, this bird does not come to its full plumage till the third year. The female lays five or ſix greyiſh white eggs; in hot climates, twenty, the ſize of thoſe of a turkey. Theſe, if let alone, ſhe lays in ſome ſecret place, at a diſtance from the uſual reſort, to prevent their being broken by the male, which he is apt to do if he find them. The time of ſitting is from twenty-ſeven to thirty days. The young may be fed with curd, chopped leeks, barley-meal, &c. moiſtened; and are fond of graſhoppers, and ſome other inſects. In five or ſix months they will feed as the old ones, on wheat and barley, with what elſe they can pick up in the circuit of their confinement. They ſeem to prefer the moſt elevated places to rooſt on during night; ſuch as high trees, tops of houſes, and the like. Their cry is loud and inharmonious; a perfect contraſt to their external beauty. They are caught in India, by carrying lights to the trees where they rooſt, and having painted repreſentations of the bird preſented to them at the ſame time; when they put out the neck to look at the figure, the ſportſman ſlips a nooſe over the head, and ſecures his game. In moſt ages they have been eſteemed as a ſalutary food. Hortenſius gave the example at Rome, where it was carried to the higheſt luxury, and ſold dear. They muſt have been plenty notwithſtanding, or the emperor Vitellius could not have got ſufficient for his large diſh, called the *Buckler of Minerva*, which, hiſtory ſays, was filled with the livers of *ſcari*, tongues of flamingoes, and brains of pheaſants and peacocks. A young pea-fowl is thought a dainty even in the preſent times.—The life

of this bird is reckoned by ſome at about twenty-five years; by others a hundred.

The white peacock, the only variety neceſſary to be mentioned, is, as its name imports, entirely white, not excepting even the eyes of the train, which it is nevertheleſs eaſy to trace out. This variety, is, in Latham's opinion, more common in England, than elſewhere. We are informed by the ſame author, that two inſtances have occurred to him, of the females of this ſpecies having the external marks of the plumage of the male.

So beautiful a ſpecies of birds as the peacock, could not long remain a ſtranger in the more diſtant parts in which they were produced: for ſo early as the days of Solomon, we find, among the articles imported in his Turkiſh navies, apes and peacocks. A monarch ſo converſant in all branches of natural hiſtory, 'who ſpoke of trees, from the cedar of Lebanon, even unto the hyſſop that ſpringeth out of the wall; who ſpoke alſo of beaſts and of fowl,' would certainly not neglect furniſhing his officers with inſtructions for collecting every curioſity in the countries they travelled to, which gave him a knowledge that diſtinguiſhed him from all the princes of his time. Ælian relates, that they were brought into Greece from ſome barbarous country; and that they were held in ſuch high eſteem, that a male and female were valued at Athens at 1000 drachmæ, or 32l. 5s. 10d. Their next ſtep might be to Samos; where they were preſerved about the temple of Juno, being the birds ſacred to that goddeſs: and Aulus Gellius, in his Noctes Atticæ, commends the excellency of the Samian peacocks. It is therefore probable, that they were brought there originally for the purpoſes of ſuperſtition, and afterward cultivated for the uſes of luxury. We are alſo told, when Alexander was in India, he found vaſt numbers of wild ones on the banks of the Hyarotis, and was ſo ſtruck with their beauty, as to appoint a ſevere puniſhment on any perſon that killed them. Peacocks' creſts, in ancient times, were among the ornaments of the kings of England. Ernald de Aclent, was fined to king John in 140 palfries, with ſackbuts, gilt ſpurs, and peacocks creſts, ſuch as would be for his credit.

The Prince of GEELAUN *and the King* MOUSE: *A Perſian Tale.*

[Altered from Mr. Scott's Tranſlation of the Bahar-Danuſh.]

ANCIENT hiſtorians have related, that in paſt times, owing to the viciſſitudes of fortune, and the revolutions of the ſkies, in a wilderneſs on the confines of Geelaun, a mouſe being ſeated on the throne of empire, extended his command over all the wild beaſts and reptiles of the vicinity. A fox being entruſted with the important office of his prime miniſter, exerted the utmoſt activity in conducting and regulating the affairs of his kingdom.

By chance, a caravan paſſing through the wilderneſs, a camel belonging to it, very much fatigued, ſunk under his burden, and was left behind in the deſert. When he had forgotten the ſtrokes of his driver, and the painfulneſs of his pack-ſaddle, he began to graze, and in a ſhort time became ſleek and fat. The fox having obtained intelligence of his ſituation, repreſented it to the monarch mouſe, ſaying, 'In the dominions of your majeſty, a camel of broken *mahar* *, delivered from the burden of the pack-ſaddle, has taken up his abode; and in that part of the wood, particularly appropriated to the royal uſe, commits depredations on the trees and fruits of which your majeſty delights to eat. Whatever

* A *mahar*, is a bridle formed of a ſtick paſſing through the noſtrils, to each end of which a cord is tied.

pleaſes his taſte, without fear or dread, he devours. Without your majeſty's permiſſion, his eſtabliſhment in theſe dominions cannot accord with the rules of policy; becauſe, if ſuch a ſtrong and bulky animal ſhould long roam thus at his pleaſure, in proceſs of time he will grow powerful, and may entertain the rebellious deſign of wreſting the empire from your majeſty. It is therefore adviſeable that your majeſty ſummon him to the preſence, that he may be deterred from ſuch conduct. If he ſubmits in humility to your authority, your majeſty may admit him among your dependants, and confer favours upon him, and it may be for your intereſt to draw into the royal ſervice ſuch a powerful animal; but if, proud of his bulk and ſtrength, he refuſes liege obedience, it will be proper, before he has acquired much power, or conſpired with the factious, to prevent his deſigns by ſome ſtratagem.'

The king mouſe, approving his prudent vizier's advice, commanded the attendance of the camel, and the fox undertaking the buſineſs himſelf, by art and cunning drew the mahar through the noſe of the camel, and conducted him to the imperial court. The camel, when he ſaw only a mouſe, was not impreſſed with his dignity, and paced off again without notice; upon which the little king, feeling this affront as a cauſe of degradation in the eyes of his courtiers and dependants, thus addreſſed the fox.

'O loyal vizier, although thy advice is doubtleſs always founded on fidelity and attachment, yet notwithſtanding thy wiſdom and ſage policy, this affair has turned out contrary to the laws of propriety. As the form of our gracious perſon is ſomewhat diminutive, though thoſe who have penetrating minds, and are judges of intrinſic worth, may conceive the dignity of our nature, yet thoſe who judge only from appearances have not that happineſs. The ſtupid camel was not worthy of the honour of admiſſion to our preſence, and the bringing of him to our court was departing from the circle of prudence. Perhaps if he had not ſeen us, he might have had ſome dread of us in his mind, but now it is vaniſhed, he is become proud, and the unreflecting partizans of faction have now the means of diſturbance and rebellion.'

The fox replied, 'Let not your majeſty be alarmed by this unlucky accident, for though this beaſt is ſtrong, and from his crooked nature has ſtrength in his neck, yet, agreeably to the maxim, that every overgrown body is a fool, he is not endowed with wiſdom. Hence it is that an infant, putting the mahar through his noſtrils, leads him where he pleaſes. With all his ſtrength, he is a coward at heart. I will therefore ſpeedily ſubject him to your majeſty's authority, and make him ſubmit to rank among your dependants.'

In the mean time, the camel, with a contented mind, roamed through the wilderneſs, and lived in perfect eaſe and ſatisfaction, while the fox was daily contriving expedients, and laying ſnares to entangle him. At length, the camel one day, out of greedineſs, the vileſt of all faults, lifting up his head, browſed the branches of a tree, and, the ſtring of his mahar entangling in them, his head remained hanging. The unfortunate beaſt began to cry out; when the fox, learning his condition, acquainted the monarch mouſe, who, riſing from his throne, advanced with joyful exultation. Aſcending the tree, and ſitting on the branch near the camel, he vauntingly addreſſed him, ſaying, 'Happy beaſt! that feaſteſt thus on delicious fruits!' The fox next exclaimed, 'Ignorant wretch, ſuch is the conſequence of thy diſobedience. Hadſt thou bowed thy head in ſubmiſſion to his majeſty, and ſought an aſylum under the ſhade of his protection, thou hadſt not this day, with ſuch diſgrace and helpleſſneſs, been taken captive in the ſnare. There is now no other alternative but to reſign to thy fate.'

The camel now, from his great folly and cowardice, began to cry out, and ſaid; 'Though great crimes have been committed by me, yet I now aſk pardon for my faults. With inward fidelity, I proſtrate myſelf at his majeſty's throne, and ſeek refuge under the ſhade of your lordſhip's bounty. If, forgiving my errors and offences, you will deliver me from this calamity, and receive me under the ſhadow of your mercy, it will not be deviating from your auguſt virtues.'

The mouſe, having agreed to the camel's requeſt, tore in pieces with his teeth the rope of the mahar, entangled among the branches, and relieved him from his diſtreſs. The ſtupid long-necked animal, having returned proper thanks, bowed his head to the authority of the little long-tailed, ſhort necked ſovereign, and, with all his bulk and ſuperior ſize, ſubmitted to the mouſe; who, ſwelling with exultation, could ſcarcely contain himſelf in his hole. He ordered the camel to graze all day at his pleaſure, and at night attend at the preſence, to guard the royal apartments.

Some time after this, the woodcutters of the prince of Geelaun, ſeeing the camel in the foreſt without an owner, ſeized and conducted him to the prince's ſtables; of which the fox being informed, repreſented the affair to the ſublime audience. The mouſe king was enraged at the occurrence, and the next day, when the woodcutters returned to work, addreſſed them from his hole, ſaying, 'It is unbecoming a noble mind and a generous ſoul to lay the foundation of enmity and contention, without any cauſe of diſpute. Wiſdom dictates that your maſter return me the camel, and avoid ſhedding the blood of the innocent. If this is not done, let him prepare for war, for I will not by any means depart from my claim.' The woodcutters were overwhelmed with aſtoniſhment at this terrific addreſs from the mouſe, which had not the leaſt accordance with his nature; and, as a miracle, repreſented it to the prince; who laughed at it as ridiculous, and forebad his courtiers to talk of it.

When intelligence of this reached the king of the mice, he addreſſed the fox, by way of learning his opinion, ſaying, 'It cannot be any ways conſiſtent with dignity and empire to ſubmit to theſe affronts; therefore, our wiſe reſolve is taken, to call together the commanders of our forces, and prepare in the beſt manner for this important undertaking. Having collected the requiſites for warfare and defence, we will march to battle.' The vizier agreeing in opinion with his majeſty, an army ſo vaſt, that the moſt ſubtile arithmeticians confeſſed themſelves incapable to count its numbers, ſoon ſurrounded the imperial throne. The whole plain of the country was covered with mice.

Firſt of all, by direction of the vizier, he was reſolved to undermine the treaſury of the enemy, and carry off all his money. This was effected in a ſhort time; ſo that nothing remained in the vaults of the prince of Geelaun, but torn bags, and mouſe-eaten cheſts; while the treaſurers had not the leaſt ſuſpicion of the theft. This important object being happily attained, the king commanded his vizier to look out for ſome of the ſons of *men* graced with ability, who might take upon him the further operations of the war, and raiſe an army of mortals for his majeſty's ſervice.

By chance, a diſtreſſed ſoldier of fortune, with his brethren and dependants, having left his home in ſearch of employment, paſſed through the deſert, where he beheld numbers of mice ſkipping about, and playing, with golden coins in their mouths. The officer, much diſtreſſed, and ſo poor that he would have let fly his arrow at the ſmall morſel of a cat, longed vehemently to ſeize the money from the little animals. Suddenly, a venerable mouſe popping his head from his hole, addreſſed him, ſaying, 'My lord, if you deſire to enjoy the

goods of the world, in ſpite of fortune, and acquire much money, enter into our ſervice, and at once be rich in ſilver and gold.'

The young captain, regarding the opportunity as moſt happy, now found his ſtar fortunate. Through the mediation of the mouſe, he was introduced to the whiſkered monarch; who agreed to allow him a ſum, far exceeding his hopes or deſerts, for which he ſigned an immediate order on his ſecret treaſures; and having conferred upon him the important ſtation of generaliſſimo, recommended the utmoſt ſpeed in levying forces, and collecting ſtores of war.

The officer immediately wrote to all his friends and comrades of his wonderful adventure, obſerving, that at a time when virtue and liberality had deſerted from among mankind, encouragement and generous treatment were only to be found in the ſervice of the king of mice, who poſſeſſed immenſe ſecret treaſures and buried hoards of wealth. Baſely-minded men, who are naturally the ſlaves of money, regarding the opportunity of acquiring it as moſt precious, now collected from all quarters; ſo that in a ſhort time a great army was embodied, and all the requiſites for offenſive operations in readineſs.

The king of the mice, attended by his motley hoſt, now marched from his ſubterraneous capital, and ſounded the drums of valour in the field of war. The prince of Geelaun, roufed by the alarm, ſummoned his miniſters and generals to an aſſembly, and conſulted with them, ſaying, that 'though in this world of viciſſitudes ſtrange events occur, yet ſuch a ridiculous one as the preſent is very vexatious. To be engaged againſt a mouſe is truly diſhonouring. However, having conſidered well what is neceſſary to be done, let us form our plans.'

The council repreſented, that ſince the enemy had commenced hoſtilities, there was no remedy but to give them battle. Upon which the prince, ordering out his troops, commanded his ſtores to be opened, and the ſums neceſſary for warlike diſburſements to be iſſued: but when the gates of his treaſury were unlocked, not a veſtige of the ſtolen money remained. In this dilemma, the prince for the preſent ſatisfied his troops with promiſes, and marching from his capital, planted his ſtandard in oppoſition to that of the enemy, on the field of battle.

At ſun-ſet, the king of the mice commanded his body-guards to execute a ſecret expedition which he had committed to them. The army of mice, more numerous than ſwarms of piſmires, or flights of locuſts, having in the night entered the enemy's camp, gnawed to pieces with their teeth the leathers of the ſtirrups, the reins of the bridles, the parchment of the drums, the bow-ſtrings, and, in like manner, whatever they found made of leather or cloth. Having completely finiſhed their deſigns, they returned triumphant to the camp of their ſovereign; who, at this import criſis, drawing out his human allies in line of battle, marched at their head, and commanded them to diſplay their valour like heroes.

The ſpies of the prince informed him of the motions of the enemy to ſurprize his camp; upon which he commanded the heralds and generals to prepare the various diviſions of the army, and make ready for battle. The troops, on haſtening to form, were confounded at the damage done to their ſaddles and weapons, and panic-ſtricken at their forlorn condition. The bands of the ſovereign mouſe, regarding the confuſion of the enemy, as the forerunner of victory and ſucceſs, charged with furious valour, and in an inſtant made whole ſquadrons a mercileſs ſacrifice to their ſharp ſabres. The ſurvivors made their eſcape. The prince, with much difficulty and diſgrace, having eſcaped from the field, ſhut himſelf up in his citadel; leaving all his effects, tents, and royal equipage, an offering to the plunder of the conquerors.

The prince next diſpatched an am-

baſſador, and requeſted that, without the ſeizure of his country, he might be received under the ſhadow of protection; and the king of mice, notwithſtanding the meanneſs of his nature, agreeably to the axioms of the liberal, practiſing the laws of generoſity, and diſplaying magnanimity, ſent back all the plunder, and ſaid, 'Our motive for kindling the flames of ſlaughter was not the conqueſt of your dominions, but the reſtoration of our camel.'

The prince eſteeming this demand as moſt auſpicious, having caparizoned the camel in gorgeous houſings, trappings ſet with jewels, and a ſilken mahar, diſpatched him to the preſence of the king of mice, and offering many apologies, had a pardon granted him. The king of mice, having returned victorious and triumphant to his ſubterraneous capital, diſmiſſed his human auxiliaries with ſatisfactory rewards; and the camel, as before the war, was allowed to forage at large in the wilderneſs, having the higheſt rank of nobility conferred upon him by his ſovereign; who, from his unexpected ſucceſs, exalted his head to the ſummit of the ſkies, and notwithſtanding his ſhortneſs of neck, acted as if cats were not in exiſtence.

If the prince of Geelaun, inſtead of contemning the mouſe, had prepared to repel the enemy, by a very little attention, all this diſgrace and humiliation might have been prevented. Had he preferred conciliation, that depended only on a ſingle camel; or if he had bent his attention properly to the deſtruction of his enemy, one cat would have effected the object. As he deviated from the maxims of the prudent (who adviſe that an enemy ſhould never be deſpiſed) and purſued the paths of negligence and ſelf-conceit, he ſuffered the evil conſequences of ſuch conduct.

HYDROPHOBIA.

[From the Bath Society's Papers.]

Dr. Fothergill's *Paper 'On the Nature of the Diſeaſe occaſioned by the Bite of a Mad Dog, and the Means of an effectual Remedy,' is one of thoſe Tracts, the general Diſperſion of which might be highly uſeful. The following Extract from this Paper cannot but be uſeful and intereſting.*

IT appears that the hydrophobia may be conſidered as a ſpecies of ſpaſmodic *angina*, produced by ſpecific contagion, which exerts its influence, 1ſt, on the injured part, and afterward on the organs of deglutition: 2dly, that the local ſtimulus, being propagated to the brain, excites the moving powers of the ſyſtem into reaction; and hence the convulſive motions which ſpeedily exhauſt the ſtrength, and finally extinguiſh the vital principle: 3dly, that profuſe bleeding may prove highly injurious: 4thly, that the forcing down large quantities of liquid is a cruel practice, as it cannot but increaſe the ſpaſms, and exaſperate the malady.

INDICATIONS OF CURE.

The chief indications of cure appear evidently to be the following:

1ſt. To diſſolve the fatal connection between the injured part and the organs of deglutition.

2dly. To calm the violent ſpaſms, and ſoothe the nervous ſyſtem.

3dly. To ſupport the ſtrength, and invigorate the whole frame.

To anſwer the firſt of theſe indications, much depends on external means, and cloſe attention to the injured part. The moment any darting pains, attended with numbneſs and diſcoloration, are perceived, they denote the poiſon to be in an active ſtate, and that no time ought to be loſt in proſecuting the moſt vigorous meaſures.

The period from the commencement of theſe ſymptoms to the approach of the hydrophobia is uncertain, and, perhaps, rarely exceeds

five or ſix days. To prevent, therefore, the irritation being propagated to the throat, let the ſuſpected part be immediately cut out, and the ſurface of the wound duly cauterized. If any difficulty of deglutition has already been felt, let a ſharp bliſter or ſinapiſm be applied to the throat, extending from ear to ear. For unleſs the morbid impreſſion can be obliterated by one yet ſtronger, and the natural action of the ſympathizing parts ſpeedily reſtored, there can be but ſmall hopes of ſucceſs.

A malady ſo rapid in its progreſs, ſo intractable by nature, demands Herculean remedies, and warrants a prudent trial of the moſt active ſubſtances with which we are yet acquainted. The Atropa Belladona, in doſes of four or five grains, has been highly extolled by ſome German profeſſors; the lauraceraſus half grain, and arſenic one-eighth, by others. The byoſcyamus niger, in form of extract, given in doſes of 15 or 20 grains, in caſes of fixed melancholy, attended with horrors and obſtinate watchings, I have ſometimes found very beneficial. It moreover procures ſleep and compoſure of mind, often where opium fails, or even adds to the inquietude. Now theſe potent remedies, with due caution, may be tried in ſucceſſion; if they fail, they only ſhare the common fate of former antidotes; but if one of them ſhould anſwer, it may afford an important addition to our ſtock of knowledge.

2dly. To aſſuage the ſpaſms, and ſoothe the nervous ſyſtem.

To effect this, after the hydrophobia has actually appeared, all impediments, and whatever may hurt the acute feelings of the patient, or, by the power of aſſociation, tend to aggravate his ſufferings, muſt be firſt carefully removed; no dog muſt on any account be allowed to enter the room. Not water only, and other liquids, but all glaring colours and glaſs mirrors, muſt be kept entirely out of his ſight. No loud noiſe, nor cold air, muſt be ſuffered to moleſt him. Having thus removed impediments, we muſt next endeavour to aſſiſt nature in alleviating the ſpaſms, and in procuring a lucid interval. If there be any critical evacuation in this diſeaſe favourable to our views, it muſt, I conceive, be that of ſweat.

In the cures recorded by Dr. Nugent and others, in five or ſix caſes of the hydrophobia in an advanced ſtate, the treatment was different in each, yet there was one circumſtance common to all, and that was a copious ſweat. Till that appeared, the recovery ſeems to have been doubtful. Nor is the caſe deſcribed by Van Helment an exception: the patient being plunged into the cold bath till half dead, the cure was attributed to the fright, but ought rather to have been aſcribed to the reaction of the ſyſtem, which, being aided by a warm bed and ſudorific regimen, terminated in a ſalutary ſweat. In a ſubſequent experiment of this kind, equally terrific, no ſweat enſued, and the diſeaſe ſoon proved fatal.

Sudorifics, indeed, ſeldom produce a copious ſweat, unleſs their operation can be aſſiſted by warm diluting liquors. Hence, perhaps, it is, that muſk, valerian, opium, and other powerful ſudorifics, have ſo often failed.—Given merely as antiſpaſmodics, without proper dilution, they ſerve but to flatter hope at the expence of diſappointment; let, therefore, the following method have a fair trial:

'In a pint of olive oil diſſolve an ounce of camphire; let the entire ſurface of the body be diligently rubbed with this ſolution, made warm, continuing the friction before a gentle fire till the whole be expended. After which, let the patient be covered with a flannel and put into a warm bed, till a copious perſpiration be procured. This may be encouraged by an enema of warm wine whey, with an addition of volatile alkaline ſpirit, or *eau de luce*, which laſt has long been deemed a noted ſpecific in France. The part affected, and alſo

the neck and ſpine, ought to be well embrocated twice a day with tepid oil, which, by ſoothing the nerves, may act as a powerful anodyne and antiſpaſmodic: could an entire bath of oil be had, it would be, perhaps, greatly preferable to a common bath of warm water.

A patient, in conſequence of the poiſon of arſenic, had long ſuffered ſevere pains and convulſive ſpaſms over the whole ſurface of his body, which reſiſted various internal and external remedies, till he was ordered by M. Bouteille to be placed, for the ſpace of an hour, at proper intervals, in a bath of warm oil, by which he was ſoon completely cured.

If muſic has charms to harmonize the nerves and ſoothe the feelings of a melancholy or outrageous maniac, as mentioned on the higheſt authority, can any cauſe be aſſigned why, in a muſical age like the preſent, its powerful influence ſhould not be tried againſt this dreadful malady? Though its effects on the diſeaſe occaſioned by the tarantula, may have been greatly exaggerated, yet if what has been confidently aſſerted of its efficacy againſt the envenomed bite of the moſt dangerous ſerpents be true, the analogy would afford, at leaſt, a preſumptive argument in its favour. But, independent of this, other beneficial effects, in removing the wild ravings in certain fevers, might here be produced.

And it was conſidered by Clineas, Aſclipiades and Aretœur, as an eſſential remedy in phrenzy, melancholy, and mental derangement.

In the Memoirs of the Medical Society of Paris, vol. 6, is an affecting inſtance of a youth of 12 years old, who died of the hydrophobia. The diſtreſſing ſcene near the cloſe of the diſeaſe induced the phyſician to try the effect of muſic, by playing before him on the guitar. The harmony, even at this late period, we are told, appeaſed the ſpaſms, and rendered the pulſe more calm and regular.

3dly. To ſupport ſtrength, and reſtore the energy of the brain.

To enable the patient to bear up under the unequal conflict, his diet ſhould conſiſt of the moſt nutritious aliments, chiefly of the ſolid kind, to which may be added freſh eggs, jellies, and bread ſoaked in generous wine. If, from his dread of liquids, neither food nor medicine of the fluid kind can be got down, they muſt be conveyed in the form of medicated baths and enemas; of which the body, being in a parched abſorbent ſtate, will imbibe more than is generally imagined. Might not liquids alſo be ſafely conveyed into the ſtomach with a flexible tube, as in caſes of ſuſpended animation!

To reſtore oxygen to the blood, and invigorate the whole ſyſtem, vital air, properly modified, may be inhaled into the lungs. Where this cannot be had, as nitrous acid contains it in a looſe ſtate, and readily detached, the acid may be diluted with a portion of water, and adminiſtered as above-mentioned.

Should any conſiderable truce to the violent ſymptoms be happily obtained, the return of paroxyſm might poſſibly be obviated by a liberal uſe of Peruvian bark with ſteel, and by repeated oxygenation.

MEMORABILIA OF JANUARY.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

OUR forefathers were remarkable for a ſuperſtitious regard to certain months and days, which were deemed lucky or unlucky for the undertaking of any buſineſs. In our times we are become leſs attentive to theſe matters, although there are ſome among the lower claſſes, and in the more remote parts of the kingdom, who ſtill adhere, with great obſtinacy, to what

they term lucky and unlucky days, or months, and I ſhall not at preſent endeavour to rob them of their theories. I ſhall, however, perhaps, in the courſe of my letters, ſhew that there is a ſingular coincidence between the opinions of the modern vulgar and thoſe of our moſt enlightened forefathers upon ſuch ſubjects. But my preſent purpoſe is of another kind.

We have had many books publiſhed, in which hiſtories (if they may be ſo called) have been given of the twelve months, but all theſe have principally regarded the appearances of nature in thoſe months, the phenomena of ſowing, planting, reaping, or, in a word, the natural hiſtory of ſuch months. My deſign is to give a ſlight ſketch, and it can only be a ſlight one, of the civil hiſtory of each month, or the public events and other *memorabilia* which have occurred in it. Some amuſement, at leaſt, if not much uſe, may ariſe from taking a chronological ſurvey of the months in this way, and it will ſerve to refreſh the memory, and bring together a ſet of ideas upon importaut ſubjects, which may aſſiſt and enliven converſation. By way of ſpecimen, which will better explain my plan, than any preface, I herewith ſend you the MEMORABILIA of JANUARY, and ſhall continue the reſt in the uſual courſe. ÆRARIUS.

AMONG the *public events* of January, may be reckoned the coronation of William the Conqueror, at Weſtminſter, the firſt of a potent race of kings, and the laſt who could ſay, that he had conquered this country. The coronation of Charles II at Scone, in 1651, was a leſs fortunate event, the Scotch not being able to ſupport his claim to his father's crown againſt the Engliſh.—In this month Calais ſurrendered to the French, after it had been in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh above 210 years. This was one of the fruits of the weak and bloody reign of queen Mary.—In this month alſo Philip V, king of Spain, and Charles V, of Germany, reſigned their crowns, the one in 1724, the other in 1554. This practice of *reſigning* crowns has not of late been ſo common. But there are two memorable inſtances in this month, of ſovereigns dethroned and put to death by their rebellious ſubjects, Charles I, of England, and Louis XVI, of France. In this month alſo periſhed on a ſcaffold, archbiſhop Laud, the too zealous counſellor of Charles I.

January is remarkable for the *birth* of ſome illuſtrious characters; of Cicero, the moſt celebrated of the Roman orators and philoſophers; of lord Bacon, one of the greateſt geniuſes that any country has produced, but whoſe genius was obſcured by failings that ought to check the pride of human attainments, and which occaſioned that ſevere line of the poet,

'The greateſt, wiſeſt, *meaneſt* of mankind!'

Adrian, the Roman emperor, who, in his viſit to this country, built the famous wall which goes by his name, was born in this month.

But the proportion of illuſtrious *deaths* in January is far greater. Among theſe we may reckon Lewis XII, king of France, uſually called the father of his people; Ovid, the poet of lovers and love-ſick claſſics; general Monk, afterward duke of Albemarle. The ſhare he took in bringing in Charles II is well known, and he ſucceeded, becauſe he watched the favourable opportunity, when the people were completely wearied of a ſucceſſion of pretended patriots and impoſtors. It may not be impertinent to add, that the public are at preſent looking for the coming of another Monk in a neighbouring nation, but of that there ſeems not a very near proſpect. What can we expect of a people, who have bowed the neck to a foreign adventurer, in preference to the hereditary line, and what is more ſingular, in preference to the republican government of which we have heard ſo much? Let us turn from this diſguſting and degrading ſcene.

In this month died queen Catherine

of Arragon, the divorced wife of Henry VIII, a man who, as a late author juſtly obſerves, 'confounded every idea of government and religion; who burned martyrs of oppoſite ſects at the ſame ſtake, baſtardized his own children, and then entailed his crown on them; and who ſeems to have provided for nothing but a ſucceſſion of civil wars, by the unwarrantable diſpoſition he made of his dominions.'

Among theſe *memento mori's*, we are alſo to reckon ſir Hans Sloane, whoſe vaſt collection became the foundation, and almoſt the ſuperſtructure of the the Britiſh Muſeum; David Garrick, whoſe death, in the energetic language of his old friend, Dr. Johnſon, 'eclipſed the gaiety of nations, and impoveriſhed the public ſtock of harmleſs pleaſure.' Howard, alſo, renowned among all nations for his philanthropy, died in this month. His death was announced in the London Gazette, an honour for which there is not, we believe, any precedeot. A ſtatue has been ſince erected in St. Paul's cathedral to his memory. Leſs ought not to have been done to honour a man who 'viſited all Europe, not to ſurvey the ſumptuouſneſs of palaces, or the ſtateline ſs of temples; not to make accurate meaſurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form an epitome of modern art; but to dive into the depths of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hoſpitals; to ſurvey the manſions of ſorrow and pain, &c. in a word, to compare and to collate, for the purpoſe of remedying the diſtreſſes of men in all countries.'

In this month alſo, the world loſt Gibbon, the celebrated hiſtorian, and a better man, Dr. George Horne, biſhop of Norwich; Dr. Garth, the witty author of the Diſpenſary, and William Congreve, the laſt of legitimate dramatic wits, for he has given the name ſince to every perſon who has appeared to tread in his ſteps. —Two monarchs of great renown, but who will be very differently eſtimated, paid the debt of nature in January, Henry VIII of England, already mentioned, and Peter the Great, of Ruſſia. It was in the ſame month that Peter came to England, and learned the trade of ſhip-building. The death of the celebrated aſtronomer Galileo, whoſe life was lately given in your magazine, happened alſo in January.

Among the leſſer *memorabilia* of the ſame period, may be mentioned, the arrival of prince Eugene, in England; the capture of Onore, in the Eaſt-Indies, by the Engliſh; the ſuppreſſion, perhaps only for a time, of monaſtic eſtabliſhments in France; the eſcape of the Stadtholder and family from the Hague, driven thence by the invaſion of the French; and for a ſimilar reaſon, the landing of the king and queen of Naples at Palermo, in Sicily.

To mention every event occurring in a particular month, would be tedious.—It will be my object to catch the more prominent.

ON THE ANCIENT AND MODERN USE OF GHOSTS.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

THE revival of ghoſts in our theatres, is an occurrence of no ſmall importance in the hiſtory of the ſtage, and bids fair to employ our dramatic writers in a new form of compoſition. Theſe ghoſts have, however, come upon us ſo very ſuddenly, that we have not yet had leiſure to examine into the uſes of them. I ſhall therefore, in this letter, enquire, Firſt, into the ancient uſes of ghoſts: and ſecondly, Reſolve the queſtion, of what uſe they are likely to be in modern times?

Firſt, I obſerve, with the aſſiſtance of the facetious captain Groſe, that a ghoſt is ſuppoſed to be the ſpirit of a perſon deceaſed, who is either com-

miſſioned to return for ſome eſpecial errand, ſuch as the diſcovery of a murder, to procure reſtitution of lands or money, unjuſtly withheld from an orphan or widow—or, having committed ſome injuſtice while living, cannot reſt till that is redreſſed. Sometimes, the occaſion of ſpirits reviſiting this world, is to inform their heir in what ſecret place, or private drawer in an old trunk, they had hidden the title-deeds of the eſtate; or where, in troubleſome times, they buried their money and plate. Some ghoſts of murdered perſons, whoſe bodies have been ſecretly buried, cannot be at eaſe till their bones have been taken up, and depoſited in conſecrated ground, with all the rites of Chriſtian burial. Sometimes ghoſts appear in conſequence of an agreement made, while living, with ſome particular friend, that he who firſt died ſhould appear to the ſurvivor. Glanvil tell us of the ghoſt of a perſon, who had lived but a diſorderly kind of life, for which it was condemned to wander up and down the earth, in the company of evil ſpirits, till the day of judgment.

In moſt of the relations of ghoſts, they are ſuppoſed to be mere aerial beings, without ſubſtance, and that they can paſs through walls and other ſolid bodies at pleaſure. The uſual time at which ghoſts make their appearance is midnight, and ſeldom before it is dark; though ſome audacious ſpirits have been ſaid to appear even by day-light: but of this there are few inſtances, and thoſe moſtly ghoſts who have been laid, perhaps in the Red Sea, and whoſe times of confinement were expired: theſe, like felons confined to the lighters, are ſaid to return more troubleſome and daring than before. Ghoſts commonly appear in the ſame dreſs they uſually wore while living, though they are ſometimes clothed all in white; but that is chiefly the churchyard ghoſts, who have no particular buſineſs, but ſeem to appear *pro publico bono*, or to ſcare drunken ruſtics from tumbling over their graves.

I cannot learn that ghoſts carry tapers in their hands, as they are ſometimes depicted, though the room in which they appear, if without fire or candle, is frequently ſaid to be as light as day. Dragging chains is not the faſhion of Engliſh ghoſts; chains and black veſtments being chiefly the accoutrements of foreign ſpectres, ſeen in arbitrary governments; dead or alive, Engliſh ſpirits are free—If, during the time of an apparition, there is a lighted candle in the room, it will burn extremely blue; this is ſo univerſally acknowledged, that many eminent philoſophers have buſied themſelves in accounting for it, without once doubting the fact.

The coming of a ſpirit is announced, ſome time before its appearance, by a variety of loud and dreadful noiſes; ſometimes rattling in the old hall like a coach and ſix, and rumbling up and down the ſtaircaſe, like a trundling of bowls or cannon-balls. At length, the door flies open, and the ſpectre ſtalks ſlowly up to the bed's foot, and opening the curtains, looks ſtedfaſtly at the perſon in bed by whom it is ſeen; a ghoſt being very rarely viſible to more than one perſon, although there are ſeveral in company. It is here neceſſary to obſerve, that it has been univerſally found by experience, as well as affirmed by divers apparitions themſelves, that a ghoſt has not the power to ſpeak till it has been firſt ſpoken to; ſo that, notwithſtanding the urgency of the buſineſs on which it may come, every thing muſt ſtand ſtill till the perſon viſited can find ſufficient courage to ſpeak to it; an event that ſometimes does not take place for many years. It has not been found that female ghoſts are more loquacious, than thoſe of the male ſex, both being equally reſtrained by this law.

The mode of addreſſing a ghoſt, is by commanding it, in the name of the Trinity, to tell you who it is, and what is its buſineſs; this it may be neceſſary to repeat three times; after which it will, in a low and hollow

voice, declare its ſatisfaction at being ſpoken to, and deſire the party addreſſing it not to be afraid, for it will do him no harm. This being premiſed, it commonly enters into its narrative; which being completed, and its requeſt or commands given, with injunctions that they be immediately executed, it vaniſhes away, frequently in a flaſh of light; in which caſe, ſome ghoſts have been ſo conſiderate as to deſire the party to whom they appeared to ſhut their eyes: ſometimes its departure is attended with delightful muſic. During the narrative of its buſineſs, a ghoſt muſt by no means be interrupted by queſtions of any kind: ſo doing is extremely dangerous; if any doubts ariſe, they muſt be ſtated after the ſpirit has done its tale. Queſtions reſpecting its ſtate, or the ſtate of any of their former acquaintance, are offenſive, and not often anſwered; ſpirits, perhaps, being reſtrained from divulging the ſecrets of their priſon-houſe. Occaſionally, ſpirits will even condeſcend to talk on common occurrences, as is inſtanced by Glanvil, in the apparition of major George Sydenham to captain William Dyke, wherein the major reproved the captain for ſuffering a ſword which he had given him to grow ruſty, ſaying, 'Captain, captain, this ſword did not uſe to be kept after this manner when it was mine.' This attention to the ſtate of arms was a remnant of the major's profeſſional duty when living. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that ghoſts do not go about their buſineſs, like perſons of this world. In caſes of murder, a ghoſt, inſtead of going to the next juſtice of the peace, and laying its information, or to the neareſt relation of the perſon murdered, appears to ſome poor labourer, who knows none of the parties, draws the curtains of ſome decrepit nurſe or alms-woman, or hovers about the place where his body is depoſited. The ſame circuitous mode is purſued with reſpect to redreſſing injured orphans or widows; when it ſeems as if the ſhorteſt and moſt certain way would be, to go to the perſon guilty of the injuſtice, and haunt him continually till he be terrified into a reſtitution. Nor is the pointing out loſt writings generally managed in a more ſummary way; the ghoſt commonly applying to a third perſon, ignorant of the whole affair, and a ſtranger to all concerned. But it is preſumptuous to ſcrutinize too far into theſe matters; ghoſts have undoubtedly forms and cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves.

If, after the firſt appearance, the perſons employed neglect, or are prevented from, performing the meſſage or buſineſs committed to their management, the ghoſt appears continually to them, at firſt with a diſcontented, next an angry, and at length with a furious countenance, threatning to tear them to pieces if the matter is not forthwith executed; ſometimes terrifying them, by appearing in many formidable ſhapes, and ſometimes even giving them a violent blow. Of blows given by ghoſts there are many inſtances, and ſome wherein they have been followed with an incurable lameneſs.

It ſhould have been obſerved, that ghoſts, in delivering their commiſſions, in order to enſure belief, communicate to the perſons employed ſome ſecret, known only to the parties concerned, and themſelves, the relation of which always produces the effect intended. The buſineſs being completed, ghoſts appear with a cheerful countenance, ſaying they ſhall now be at reſt, and will never more diſturb any one; and, thanking their agents, by way of reward communicate to them ſomething relative to themſelves, which they will never reveal.

Sometimes ghoſts appear, and diſturb a houſe, without deigning to give any reaſon for ſo doing; with theſe, the ſhorteſt and only way is to exorciſe, and eject them; or, as the vulgar term it, lay them. For this purpoſe there muſt be two or three clergymen, and the ceremony muſt

be performed in Latin: a language that ſtrikes the moſt audacious ghoſt with terror. A ghoſt may be laid for any term leſs than a hundred years, and in any place, or body, full or empty; as a ſolid oak—the pommel of a ſword—a barrel of beer, if a yeoman, or ſimple gentleman—or, if a eſquire or a juſtice, in a pipe of wine. But of all places, the moſt common, and what a ghoſt leaſt likes, is the Red Sea; it being related in many inſtances, that ghoſts have moſt earneſtly beſought the exorciſts not to confine them in that place. It is nevertheleſs conſidered as an indiſputed fact, that there are an infinite number laid there, perhaps from its being a ſafer priſon, than any other nearer at hand; though neither hiſtory nor tradition gives us any inſtance of ghoſts eſcaping or returning from this kind of tranſportation before their time.

Such, Mr. Editor, are the uſes which have been anſwered by ancient ghoſts, thoſe in which our forefathers took delight. The ſecond part of my enquiry was to reſolve their uſe in modern times, as it is needleſs to inform any of your readers that they have lately been revived in our theatres.

This part of my ſubject will take up very little room, and may be expreſſed in very few words. The only uſe any perſon has yet diſcovered for modern ghoſts is, *to fill the manager's pockets!*

I am, yours, &c.

GLANVIL, JUNIOR.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODE FOR THE NEW YEAR.

By Mr. PYE.

INCESSANT down the ſtream of Time,
And days, and years, and ages, roll,
Speeding through Error's iron clime
To dark Oblivion's goal;
Loſt in the gulf of night profound,
No eye to mark their ſhadowy bound,
Unleſs the deed of high renown,
The warlike chief's illuſtrious crown,
Shed o'er the darkling void a dubious fame,
And gild the paſſing hour with ſome immortal name.

Yet, evaneſcent as the fleeting cloud,
Driv'n by the wild winds o'er the varying ſkies,
Are all the glories of the great and proud,
On Rumour's idle breath that faintly riſe.
A thouſand garbs their forms aſſume,
Woven in vain Conjecture's loom;
Their dyes a thouſand hues diſplay,
Sporting in Fancy's fairy ray;
Changing with each uncertain blaſt,
Till, melting from the eyes at laſt,
The ſhadowy vapours fly before the wind,
Sink into viewleſs air, 'nor leave a rack behind.'

But if the raptur'd train whom Heaven inſpires
Of glory to record each deathleſs meed,
Tune to heroic worth their golden lyres,
And give to memory each godlike deed,
Then ſhall the eternal guerdon wait
The actions of the wiſe and great;—
While as from black Oblivion's ſway
They bear the mighty name away,
And waft it, borne on pinion high,
With joyful carol to the ſky,
Sage Hiſtory, with eye ſevere,
Tracing aloft their bold career,
Clears the rich tale from Fiction's ſpecious grace,
And builds her ſacred lore on Truth's eternal baſe.

THE POOR LITTLE ORPHAN.

YOUNG, friendleſs, and left to the world's cruel ſcorn,
No ſunſhine my ſad dreary proſpect to bliſs,
Ah, better perhaps had I never been born,
Since charity ſleeps, at the call of diſtreſs.
Yet ſtill ſhall no evils my conſtancy ſhake,
Or turn me to deeds I may live to deplore;
For the heaven which ſhelters, will never forſake
The poor little orphan that begs at your door.

And ſince death ſo unkindly hath robb'd me of friends,
Whom the tie of affection ſhould bind to my heart;
All my hope of ſupport now on Heaven depends,
And the bleſſings which bounty will often impart.

But I who now wander in ſearch of my bread,
Alas! oft in vain a kind ſhelter implore:
And the damp lowly earth is too often the bed,
Of the poor little orphan that begs at your door.

But alas! if I meet not with charity's aid,
By which the poor wanderer is oftentimes bleſt;
If ſtill no protection will offer its ſhade,
Beneath which I may lull my ſad ſorrows to reſt,
Oh then from kind heaven a releaſe I muſt crave,
And a reſpite from woes ſuch as theſe muſt implore;
And the damp lowly earth will ere long be the grave,
Of the poor little orphan that begs at your door.

But compaſſion's full heart I have often heard ſigh,
As it view'd, and yet could not relieve my diſtreſs;
But regiſter'd are ſuch kind feelings on high,
And rewards of delight the poſſeſſor will bleſs.
And all ye, who can tender compaſſion like this,
To thoſe, for whom life hath no comforts in ſtore;
May be the companions in the regions of bliſs,
Of the poor little orphan that begg'd at your door.

THE HERMIT BOY.

A FOREST's deep gloom was the noiſeleſs retreat
From the follies and vices of life,
Of a ſage whoſe tired heart could in uniſon beat,
To no joy of the living, ſave fellowſhip ſweet
With one only companion, his wife.

Long time here they lived, in this deſolate nook,
Forgotten their woes as a dream;
Green herbs were their food, and their drink the clear brook,
That by their lone cot its meandering took;
Their bed was the flag of the ſtream.

Heaven ſent them a boy, only pledge of their love,
But denied him a mother to know;
'Twas her laſt fondeſt wiſh that her infant might prove
Seclusion's ſure bleſſings, nor ever remove
To a world of temptation and woe.

Death came, and beneath the tall graſs was ſhe laid,
That waved by the ſide of the cot,
Here the good man his viſits at morn and eve paid,
Her grave with ſweet flowrets he duly array'd,
And it ſeem'd to aſſwage his hard lot.

To his wife's laſt injunction the father long true,
Each inquiſitive ſally withſtood;
His ſon, now a youth, thought no other but two,
Himſelf, and his father, the vital air drew;
And the world was compris'd in a wood.

They roved thro' the thickets and glades all the day,
And repoſed when the ſhadows fell faſt:
Ere the ſun drank the dew from the glittering ſpray,
In the early grey dawn they together would ſtray,
To ſeek for their blameleſs repaſt.

At noon, as it droop'd on the heath that was nigh,
The ſage mark'd the violet and ſaid,
Juſt ſo when the ſun of proſperity's high,
Does virtue firſt bloſſom, then wither and die,
For want of obſcurity's ſhade.

But ſee, cried the youth, yon grey alder beneath,
One, beauteous in hue and in form;
Yet it can't be compared with the flower on the heath,
For it ſcents not the air with its odorous breath,

Tho' defended from ſunſhine and ſtorm.
The father ſtood muſing in conſcious ſurpriſe,
At the lore which ſimplicity taught;
Yet trembled for fear of the doubtful diſguiſe,
Which hides even truth from the ken of the wiſe;
And puzzles the tremulous thought.

But, my boy, ſtill in ſecret, he cried, will I try,
From the waſte of exiſtence to ſave;
Where the phantoms of pleaſure dance thick to the eye,
But the wretch who purſues them, as luring they fly,
Often finds but a treacherous grave.

Still this wide-ſpreading wood ſhall protection afford,
From man, vile aſſociate man!

Kind nature ſtill cater our homely-ſpread board;
Still for winter the fruits of rich autumn we'll hoard;
And the brook ſhall repleniſh our can.

Full oft had the year made the foreſt bough bare,
When the good man grew faint with diſeaſe:
'Twas then he firſt truſted his ſon from his care,
Alone thro' the foreſt, to find for him there,
Some ſimples his anguiſh to eaſe.

Ah! luckleſs the time, that all wild with diſmay
Thou roveſt adventurous alone!
No medicine, fond youth! did thy ſearches repay,
That might eaſe of his anguiſh thy father that day,
No herb that would ſoften thine own.

To the foreſt's green verge all unknowing he came,
Where two females firſt met his young ſight:
Unuſual commotion then ſhot thro' his frame,
He felt a new paſſion he could not well name,
And pined for ſome unknown delight.

They vaniſh'd, and back to his far-diſtant home,
He wander'd in penſive ſurmiſe;
The herbs from his ſcrip, to his father were ſhown:
But O! cried the youth, as he fetch'd a deep groan,
What viſion has dazzled mine eyes?

Some viſion, I fear, ſon, that bodes thee no good!
But prithee the wonder declare,
Two lovely white forms paſs'd the tree where I ſtood,
And glided ſo ſoftly away in the wood,
They ſeem'd to diſſolve in the air.

Ah! talk not ſo fondly of what thou haſt ſeen,
They are fairies that haunt the wood ſide!
Ah! ſhun them as ſerpents that coil on the green,
Or they'll wound thee with arrows tormenting and keen,
Then ſorely thy ſufferings deride.

Dear youth! thou haſt ſeen me all ſorrowful ſteal
To the hillock beſide our low cot;
My days are departing too truly I feel!
Thy kindneſs avails not—thy herbs will not heal!
O lay me to reſt in that ſpot.

But remember my counſel when ſilent and low,
All remembrance of me may ſubſide:
O never! no never beyond the wood go,
And ſhun as thou ſhunneſt thy bittereſt foe,
The fairies that haunt the wood ſide!

He died and was buried the green hillock nigh,
That roſe by the ſide of the cot,
Then the youth for ſome unknown delight heav'd a ſigh,
The foreſt's wild beauties no more pleaſed his eye,
And the counſel of age was forgot.

'Tis ſaid, the next morn he aroſe with the day,
To ſeek where the viſion he ſpied:
No more in theſe deſerts, he cry'd, will I ſtay,
But will ſeek at all riſk, tho' my father ſaid nay,
The fairies that haunt the wood ſide.

VERSES written for the Tablet beneath GARRICK's Buſt, in Litchfield Cathedral, by Miſs SEWARD.

WHILE o'er this marble bends thy penſive eye,
Here, ſtranger, breathe the tributary ſigh!
Beneath theſe groves their Garrick nurs'd the art,
That reign'd reſiſtleſs o'er each feeling heart;
And here thoſe virtues dawn'd whoſe power benign
Bids Hope for him celeſtial palms entwine.
Oft has his bounty, with pervading ray,
Chas'd the dark cloud from want's tempeſtuous day;
And oft his ſilence, generous as his aid,
Hid from the world the nobleſt part he play'd.

BACCHUS AND APOLLO.

By Dr. ARNOLD.

BACCHUS is a jolly boy,
And Bacchus we will follow;
He's open, gen'rous, bold and free,
And better than Apollo.

Apollo's ſoft, effeminate,
Bacchus briſk and jolly;
He always ſhews an honeſt face,
Diſperſing melancholy.

Bacchus is the god of wine,
Apollo's god of ſqueakers;
He, quiv'ring, ſhakes his lyre and lute,
While Bacchus rings his beakers.

Thus Bacchus has his muſic too,
And maſter Pol ſurpaſſes;
Pol ſcrapes all day; Bac plays all night,
Tuning his muſic-glaſſes.

NEW CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE.

CHAP. I.

ARTICLE I.

THE French republic is one and indivisible.

Its European territory is distributed into departments and communal districts.

2. Every man born and resident in France, and of the age of 21 years, who has inscribed his name in the civic register of his communal district, and afterward remained a year on the territory of the French republic, is a French citizen.

3. A foreigner becomes a French citizen, who, after having attained the age of 21 years, and declared his intention of fixing his residence in France, has resided there for ten successive years.

4. The title of French citizen is forfeited—By naturalization in a foreign country.

By accepting any office or pension from a foreign government.

By affiliation with any foreign corporation, which supposes distinctions of birth.

By condemnation to corporal or infamous punishments.

5. The exercise of the rights of a French citizen is suspended by bankruptcy, or by a total or partial succession to the property of an insolvent.

By a state of hired servitude, either attached to the service of the person or the family.

By a state of judicial interdiction, accusation, or contumacy.

6. In order to exercise the rights of citizenship, they must have been acquired by being domiciliated by a year's residence, and not forfeited by a year's absence.

7. The citizens of every communal district shall appoint, by their suffrages, those whom they think most worthy of conducting the public affairs. There shall be a list of confidence, containing a number of names equal to a tenth of the number of citizens possessing the right of suffrage. From this first communal list the public functionaries of districts shall be taken.

8. The citizens comprised in the communal lists of a department shall also appoint a tenth of their number. These shall constitute a second list, called the departmental list, from which the public functionaries of each department shall be taken.

9. The citizens included in the departmental list shall also appoint a tenth of their number; this third list shall consist of the citizens of each department, eligible to public national functions.

10. The citizens who shall have a right of co-operating in the formation of any of the lists mentioned in the three preceding articles, shall every third year be called upon to exercise the power of replacing those who have died, or absented themselves for any other cause than the exercise of a public function.

11. They may also withdraw from the lists those whom they shall not judge proper to continue, and replace them by other citizens in whom they may have greater confidence.

12. No one shall be erased from the lists, otherwise than by the votes of the decisive majority of the citizens, having the right of co-operating in their formation.

13. No one shall be erased from the list of those eligible to public national functions, merely because his name may have been struck out of a list of an inferior or superior degree.

14. The appointment to the list of eligibles is only necessary with regard to public functions, for which that condition is expressly required by the constitution or by the law. All the lists of the eligibles shall be formed in the course of the 9th year.

CHAP. II.

15. The conservatory senate shall be composed of 24 members, of 40 years of age, at least, to be immoveable during life.

For the formation of the senate, there shall be nominated in the first instance 60 members; this number shall be increased to 62 in the course of the 8th year, to 64 in the 9th year, and shall be gradually increased to 80 by the addition of two members in each of the ten first years.

16. The nomination to the office of senator shall be by the senate, who shall make choice out of three candidates presented to them; the first by the legislative body, the second by the tribunate, and the third by the chief consul.

They shall only chuse from two candidates, if one of them is proposed by two of the three authorities presenting them.

17. The chief consul, upon quitting his office, either by the expiration of his functions, or by resignation, necessarily, and as a matter of right, becomes a senator.

The two other consuls, during the month

which follows the expiration of their functions, may take their ſeats in the ſenate, but are not obliged to exerciſe that privilege.

They loſe it altogether, if they quit their conſular functions, by reſignation.

18. A ſenator is always ineligible to any other public function.

19. All the liſts made in the departments, by virtue of the 9th article, ſhall be addreſſed to the ſenate. They ſhall compoſe the national liſt.

20. From this liſt ſhall be elected the legiſlators, the tribunes, the conſuls, the judges of caſſation, and the *commiſſaires a la reſponſibilité*.

21 They ſhall confirm or annul every act referred to them as unconſtitutional by the tribunate, or the government; the liſts of the eligibles ſhall be included among theſe acts.

22. The revenues of national domains, the terms of which are expired, ſhall be liable to the expences of the ſenate. The annual ſalary of each of its members ſhall be paid out of thoſe revenues. It ſhall be equal to a 20th of that of the chief conſul.

23. The ſittings of the ſenate are not public.

24. Citizens Sieyes and Roger Ducos, the two conſuls who are to go out of office, ſhall be nominated members of the conſervatory ſenate; they ſhall unite with the ſecond and third conſuls nominated by the preſent one. Theſe four citizens ſhall appoint the majority of the ſenate, which ſhall afterward complete itſelf, and proceed to the elections entruſted to its direction.

Chap. III.

Of the Legiſlative Power.

25. No new law ſhall be promulgated, unleſs the plan ſhall have been propoſed by the government, communicated to the tribunate, and decreed by the legiſlative body.

26. The plans which the government may propoſe ſhall be drawn up under different heads. In every caſe in which ſuch plans ſhall be diſcuſſed, the government may withdraw them, and preſent them again in a modified ſtate.

27. The tribunate is to be compoſed of 100 members of 25 years of age, at the leaſt; they ſhall be renewed by fifths every year, and indefinitely re-eligible while they remain upon the national liſt.

28. The tribunate ſhall diſcuſs the plans of every law that may be propoſed: it ſhall vote for the adoption or rejection of them.

It ſhall ſend three orators taken from its body, by whom the motives of its vote, with reſpect to each of the plans, ſhall be ſtated and ſupported before the legiſlative body.

It ſhall refer to the ſenate, but for the cauſe of inconſtitutionality only, the liſt of eligibles, the acts of the legiſlative body, and thoſe of the government.

29. It ſhall expreſs its opinion as to the laws made or to be made, the abuſes to be corrected, the ameliorations to be attempted, in every part of the public adminiſtration, but never relative to the civil or criminal affairs, referred to the tribunals.

The opinions it ſhall give, by virtue of the preſent article, are to be followed by no neceſſary conſequence; they compel no conſtituted authority to come to any deliberation.

30. When the tribunate adjourns, it may appoint a committee of from 10 to 15 members, charged to convoke it, if it ſhall be deemed neceſſary.

31. The legiſlative body ſhall be compoſed of 300 members, of 30 years of age, at the leaſt; they ſhall be renewed by fifths every year. There ought always to be one citizen, at leaſt, of each department of the republic preſent.

32. A member who goes out of the legiſlative body cannot re enter till after the interval of a year; but he may be immediately elected to any other public function, including that of tribune, provided he is in other reſpects eligible.

33. The ſitting of the legiſlative body ſhall commence every year on the 1ſt Frimaire, and ſhall continue only four months; it may be extraordinarily convoked during the other eight by the government.

34. The legiſlative body enacts the law by determining by ſecret ſcrutiny, and without any diſcuſſion on the part of its members, upon the plans of the law debated before it, by the orators of the tribunate and the government.

35. The ſittings of the tribunate, and of the legiſlative body, ſhall be public; the number of ſtrangers in either of them not to exceed 200.

36. The annual ſalary of a tribune ſhall be 15,000 francs, that of a legiſlator 10,000 francs.

37. Every decree of the legiſlative body ſhall, on the 10th day after it ſhall be made, be promulgated by the chief conſul, unleſs in the mean time it is referrred to the ſenate, on the ground of inconſtitutionality. Such reference cannot be

made with regard to laws that have been promulgated.

38. The firſt renewal of the legiſlative body, and of the tribunate ſhall not take place till the 10th year.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Government.

39. The government is entruſted to three conſuls appointed for 10 years, and indefinitely re-eligible. Each of them is to be elected individually with the diſtinct quality of chief, ſecond, or third conſul. The firſt time the third conſul ſhall only be named for five years.

For the preſent time gen. Buonaparte is appointed chief conſul; citizen Cambaceres, now miniſter of juſtice, ſecond conſul; and citizen Lebrun, member of the committee of ancients, third conſul.

40. The chief conſul has particular functions and attributes, which, when he is exerciſing, he may be temporarily ſupplied by one of his colleagues.

41. The chief conſul is to promulgate the laws; he is to name and revoke at pleaſure the members of the council of ſtate; the miniſters, ambaſſadors, and other principal foreign agents, the officers of the army by land and ſea, the members of local adminiſtration and the commiſſioners of the government at the tribunals. He is to appoint all judges criminal and civil, as well as juſtices of peace, and the judges of caſſation, without the power of afterward revoking them.

42. In the other acts of the government, the ſecond and third conſuls are to have a conſultative voice; they are to ſign the regiſter of the acts, in order to manifeſt that they were preſent; and if they pleaſe, they may counterſign their opinions; after which the determination of the chief conſul ſhall follow.

43. The ſalary of the chief conſul ſhall be 500,000 francs, for the 8th year. The ſalary of the other two conſuls ſhall be equal to three tenths of that of the firſt.

44. The government is to propoſe the laws, and to make the neceſſary regulations to enſure their execution.

45. The government is to direct the receipts and expences of the ſtate, conformable to the annual law which determines the amount of each; it ſhall ſuperintend the coinage of money, of which the law alone ſhall order the iſſue, fix the value, the weight, and the impreſſion.

46. When the government is informed of any conſpiracies againſt the ſtate, it may iſſue orders to arreſt and bring before them the perſons who are ſuſpected as the authors or accomplices; but if, within ten days after ſuch a reſt they are not ſet at liberty, or brought to trial, it ſhall be conſidered, on the part of the miniſter ſigning the order, as an act of arbitrary detenſion.

47. The government is to ſuperintend the internal ſafety, and external defence of the ſtate; it is to diſtribute the forces by ſea and land, and regulate the direction of them.

48. The national guard on duty is ſubject to the regulations of the public adminiſtration.—The national guard not on duty is only ſubject to the law.

49. The government is to manage political relations abroad, to conduct negociations, to make preliminary ſtipulations, to ſign and conclude all treaties of peace, alliance, truce, neutrality, commerce, and other conventions.

50. Declarations of war and treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, are to be propoſed, diſcuſſed, decreed, and promulgated in the ſame manner as laws.

Only the diſcuſſions and deliberations relative to theſe objects, as well in the tribunats as in the legiſlative body, are to be in a ſecret committee if the government deſires it.

51. The ſecret articles of a treaty cannot be deſtructive of the public articles.

52. Under the direction of the conſuls, the council of ſtate is charged with drawing up the plans of the laws and the regulations of the public adminiſtration, and to reſolve ſuch difficulties as may occur in all adminiſtrative matters.

53. It is from among the members of the council of ſtate that the orators are to be ſelected, who ſhall be appointed to appear in the name of the government before the legiſlative body.

There are never to be any more than three of theſe orators ſent to ſupport the ſame plan of a law.

54. The miniſters are to procure the execution of the laws, and the regulations of the public adminiſtration.

55. No act of the government can have effect till it is ſigned by a miniſter.

56. One of the miniſters is ſpecially charged with the adminiſtration of the public treaſury. He is to verify the receipts, direct the application of the funds, and the payments authoriſed by law. He is not to be at liberty to pay any thing, except by virtue, firſt, of a law, and only to the extent of the funds for defraying thoſe expences ſuch law has determined upon. Se-

condly, by a decree of the government. Thirdly, by an order ſigned by a miniſter.

57. The detailed accounts of every miniſter, ſigned and certified by him, are to be made public.

58. The government can only elect or retain as counſellors of ſtate or miniſters, ſuch citizens whoſe names are inſcribed in the national liſt.

59. The local adminiſtrations eſtabliſhed whether for each communal diſtrict, or for the more extended portions of territory, are ſubordinate to the miniſters. No one can become or remain a member of theſe adminiſtrations unleſs he is entered in one of the liſts mentioned in the 7th and 8th articles.

CHAP. V.

Of the Tribunal.

60. Every communal arondiſſement ſhall have one or more juſtices of the peace, elected immediately by citizens, for three years.

Their principal duty conſiſts in reconciling the parties applying to them, and in caſe of non-conciliation, to decide their diſpute by arbitrators.

61. In civil matters there are tribunals of firſt inſtance, and tribunals of appeal. The law determines the organization of the one and the other; their confidence and territory forming the juriſdiction of each.

62. In caſes of crimes, to which are annexed a corporal or infamous puniſhment, a firſt jury admits or rejects the charge. If it be admitted, a ſecond jury pronounces on the fact, and the judges compoſing a criminal tribunal apply the puniſhment. Their judgment is without appeal.

63. The function of public accuſer to a criminal tribunal is filled by the commiſſioner of government.

64. The crimes which do not amount to corporal or infamous puniſhment are tried before the tribunals of correctional police, ſaving an appeal to the criminal tribunals.

65. There is for the whole republic a tribunal of caſſation, which pronounces on appeals againſt judgments in the dernier reſort, given by the tribunals in caſes referred from one tribunal to another on account of lawful ſuſpicion, or the public ſafety, upon exceptions taken by the party againſt the whole tribunal.

66. The tribunal of caſſation does not anquire into the merits, but it reverſes the judgments given on proceedings in which form is violated, or which contain ſomething contrary to the expreſſed law, but ſends the caſe back to be tried on the merits by the tribunal, which has cognizance of them.

67. The judges who conſtitute the tribunals of the firſt inſtance, and the commiſſioners of government eſtabliſhed at the tribunals, are taken from the communal or departmental liſt.

The judges forming the tribunals of appeal, and the commiſſioners placed with them, are taken from the departmental liſt.

The judges compoſing the tribunal of caſſation, and the commiſſioners belonging to that tribunal, are taken from the national liſt.

68. The juſtices, except the juſtices of the peace, remain in office for life, unleſs they ſhould be condemned to forfeit their places, or ſhould not be continued on the liſt of eligibles correſponding with their functions.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Reſponſibility of the Public Functionaries.

69. The functions of members, whether of the ſenate or of the legiſlative body, or of the tribunate, and alſo thoſe of the conſuls or counſellors of ſtate, do not diſcharge them from reſponſibility.

70. Perſonal crimes, to which are annexed corporal or infamous puniſhment, committed by a member either of the ſenate, tribunate, legiſlative body, or of the council of ſtate, are proſecuted before the ordinary tribunals, after a deliberation of the body, to which the perſon charged belongs, has authoriſed ſuch proſecution.

71. The miniſters arraigned, in their private capacity, of crimes to which are annexed corporal or infamous puniſhment, are conſidered as members of the council of ſtate.

72. The miniſters are reſponſible—1ſt, for every act of government ſigned by them, and declared unconſtitutional by the ſenate; 2d, for the non-execution of the laws, and of the regulations of the public adminiſtration; 3d, for the particular orders which they have given, if theſe orders are contrary to the conſtitution, the laws, and ordinances.

73. In the ſeveral caſes of the preceding article, the tribunate denounces the miniſter by an act on which the legiſlative body deliberates in ordinary form, after having heard or ſummoned the perſon denounced. The miniſter placed in a courſe of judgment is tried by a high court without appeal, or reſource for a reverſal.

The high court is compoſed of judges

and jurors. The judges are choſen by the tribunal of caſſation and from its boſom. The jurors are choſen from the national liſt; the whole according to the forms preſcribed by the laws.

74. The judges, civil and criminal, for crimes relating to their functions, are proſecuted before the tribunals to which the tribunal of caſſation ſends them, after having annulled their acts.

75. The agents of government, other than the miniſters, cannot be proſecuted for acts relating to their functions, but by virtue of a deciſion of the council of ſtate; in this caſe the proſecution is carried on before the ordinary tribunals.

CHAP. VII.

General Diſpoſitions.

76. The houſe of every perſon inhabiting the French territory is an inviolable aſylum.

During the night no perſon has a right to enter it, except in caſe of fire, inundation, or the requeſt of the perſons within.

In the day one may enter it for a ſpecial purpoſe, determined either by the law, or an order emanating from a public authority.

77. In order that the act which ordains the arreſt of a perſon may be executed, it is neceſſary, 1ſt, that it expreſs in form the cauſes for ſuch arreſt, and the law in execution of which it is ordered; 2dly, that it iſſues from a functionary to whom the law has formally given that power; 3dly, that it be notified to the perſon arreſted, and a copy of it left with him.

78. No keeper or gaoler can receive or detain any perſon without having firſt tranſcribed on his regiſter the act ordering his arreſt. This muſt be a mandate, given in the forms preſcribed by the preceding article, or a warrant for taking the body, or a decree of accuſation, or a judgment.

79. Every keeper or gaoler is bound, without any order being able to diſpenſe with it, to repreſent the perſon in his cuſtody to the civil officer having the police of the houſe of detention, whenever this officer ſhall demand ſuch account.

80. A repreſentation of a perſon in cuſtody ſhall not be refuſed to his parents and friends, carrying an order from the civil officer, who ſhall be always obliged to grant it, unleſs the keeper or gaoler produces an order of a judge to keep the priſoner ſecret.

81. All thoſe who, not being inveſted by the law with the power of arreſting, ſhall give, ſign, or execute the arreſt of any perſon whatever; all thoſe who, even in the caſe of arreſt authorized by law, ſhall receive or detain the perſon arreſted in a place of confinement, not publicly and legally deſignated as ſuch; and all keepers or gaolers who ſhall act contrary to the diſpoſitions of the three preceding articles, ſhall be guilty of the crime of arbitrary detention.

82. All ſeverities uſed in arreſt, detentions, or executions, other than thoſe commanded by the laws, are crimes.

83. Every perſon has a right of addreſſing private petitions to every conſtituted authority, and particularly to the tribunate.

84. The public force is neceſſarily in a ſtate of obedience; no armed body can deliberate.

85. Military crimes are ſubjected to ſpecial tribunals, and particular forms of judgment.

86. The French nation declares, that it will grant penſions to all the military wounded in defence of their country, and alſo to the widows and children of ſuch military as have died on the field of battle, or in conſequence of their wounds.

87. It ſhall decree national rewards to the warriors, who ſhall have rendered diſtinguiſhed ſervices in fighting for the republic.

88. A conſtituted body cannot deliberate except in a ſitting, at which two thirds of its members, at leaſt, are preſent.

89. A national inſtitute is charged with receiving diſcoveries, and perfecting the arts and ſciences.

90. A committee of national compatibilité regulates and verifies the accounts of the receipts and expences of the republic. This committee is compoſed of ſeven members choſen by the ſenate from the national liſt.

91. The regime of the French colonies is determined by ſpecial laws.

92. In caſe of the revolt of an armed body, or of troubles which menace the ſafety of the ſtate, the law may ſuſpend in the places, and for the time it determines, the empire of the conſtitution.

This ſuſpenſion may be proviſionally declared in the ſame caſes, by an arrêté of government, the legiſlative body not being ſitting, provided this body be convened at a very ſhort term by an article of the ſame arrêté.

93. The French nation declares, that in no caſe will it ſuffer the return of the French who, having abandoned their coun-

try ſince 1789, are not compriſed in the exceptions contained in the laws againſt emigrants. It interdicts every new exception on this point.

The property of emigrants irrevocably belongs to the republic.

94. The French nation declares that after a ſale legally completed of national property, whatever may be its origin, the lawful purchaſer cannot be diſpoſſeſſed, ſaving the right of third perſons, if ſuch there ſhould be, claiming to be indemnified out of the public treaſury.

95. The preſent conſtitution ſhall be offered forthwith for the acceptance of the French people.

Done at Paris the 22d Frimaire (Dec. 13), in the 8th year of the French Republic, one and indiviſible.

The ſignatures of the members of the legiſlative committees and conſuls follow.

ADDRESS *of his Royal Highneſs the* ARCHDUKE CHARLES *to the* ANTERIOR CIRCLES *of the* EMPIRE.

Donaueſchingen, Dec. 4.

IT is from a ſentiment of the moſt urgent neceſſity that I feel myſelf compelled to ſpeak to you on a ſubject, and certain diſpoſitions, from which may reſult very great injury to the common cauſe of the Germanic empire. I ſee with regret, that upon the late events in France, by which the ſupreme power has paſſed into other hands, has been founded almoſt every where the hope that has ſo often proved deceitful, of an approaching pacification; and that in the confidence of this premature ſuppoſition has been aſſumed the power of deferring the putting the contingents in activity, and the accompliſhment of its other conſtitutional obligations. A heart truly German and patriotic, and a mind enlightened by ſuch ſad experience, cannot abſolutely commit ſuch imprudence; ſuch conduct would deprive us of the only means of concluding a ſpeedy peace upon terms juſt and proper, and which may prove ſolid and permanent. We ought not entirely to forget the maxim, that we ſhould prepare vigorouſly for war, when we wiſhed for peace; and we ſhall obtain the latter object much ſooner, and on terms the more advantageous, when the enemy ſhall ſee us in a ſtate to continue the war, ſhould he be diſpoſed to continue his imperious tone, and to preſcribe once more a peace that would bring with it ſhame and ſlavery, or infallibly lead to them. Too often has the hope, indulged with ſo much precipitation, reſpecting France, proved deceitful, to ſuffer theſe new events to ſeduce and lull the ſtate into a falſe ſecurity. It has been ſeen uniformly to the preſent hour, that every new faction in France has ſpoken a great deal about peace, not for the purpoſe of concluding one upon equitable terms, but to gain popularity; that they have often the word peace in their mouths, and are continually commencing new wars; or that by the word peace, they have meant nothing but an extermination of their enemies. The event which has taken place in France, on the 9th of November, conſidered in a near point of view, is not of a nature to be able to afford us, all at once, a full confidence. Some of thoſe, who have poſſeſſed themſelves of the ſupreme power, are the ſame men, who often, by their principles, and the whole courſe of their public life, have ſworn mortal hatred and eternal enmity to all other ſtates not conſtituted like their own; who have overturned ſome, and perfidiouſly ſubjugated others in full peace. The ſpirit even which manifeſts itſelf in the public writings of France is not ſo pacific; it is there frequently declared, that this new revolution has no other object but to raiſe the republic to the rank which it ought to hold in Europe. The late directory is blamed there not for having commenced war, but for having carried it on unſucceſsfully; for not having conquered new provinces; for having loſt ſeveral. In their proclamations they begin always with ſpeaking of victories, and they afterward talk of peace; a clear indication that circumſtances do not appear yet ſufficiently favourable for the latter, and that they would wiſh ſtill to try the fate of arms before they would think of concluding it. The miniſter of war openly announces, that he is employed in reinforcing the army, and procuring it every thing neceſſary. He adds, that he will take a part himſelf in its dangers, as ſoon as the ſeaſon permits the opening of the campaign; and that he is preparing for it new triumphs. There has not been yet on the part of France any relaxation in the preparations for war to juſtify the Germans to relax theirs; but, on the contrary, a new corps is to be formed in the four non-united departments. But even though we might have no grounds to conceive any diſtruſt reſpecting the views and

objects of the new rulers of France, the new revolution is not ſufficiently confirmed in its ſeat to inſpire a full confidence that it may not be overturned like the reſt. Finally, the queſtion is not here of ſuch a peace as every convention of armiſtice might be called. The queſtion is ſafety; the conditions for which we eſſentially contend; conditions which the honour, dignity, liberty, the integrity of the Germanic empire, and inviolability of our deareſt treaties demand. The queſtion is a juſt, fit, and durable peace in the ſenſe of the deciſions of the diet, which may ſecure religion, property, civil order, and the conſtitution of the empire. I invite you to weigh maturely theſe conſiderations with the patriotic ſentiments with which you are inſpired, and then you will certainly agree with me, that prudence imperiouſly requires that you ſhould not be ſeduced into inactivity by the reports of an approaching peace and principles more moderate, or to lay down your arms until peace ſhall be ſigned—you will feel with me the neceſſity of not delaying the meaſures of defence; but, on the contrary, of redoubling our efforts, augmenting our forces, and accompliſhing with the greateſt activity, and in the moſt ſerious manner, the deciſion, renewed and confirmed by the reſolutions of the diet, for the common defence, that we may be able to oppoſe an energetic maſs of efforts to the views of the enemy, whatever they may be. It is only by an impoſing military force that we ſhall be able to prevent the enemy from making new devaſtating attacks, abridge or terminate the evils of war, ameliorate the conditions of pacification, and finally accelerate a peace that may deſerve the name of one, and recompence the multiplied ſacrifices by which we have for a long time ſince fought to procure it.

Correſpondence between the FRENCH *and* BRITISH GOVERNMENTS. *Publiſhed by Authority.*

COPY.

MILORD,

J'EXPEDIE par l'Ordre du Général Bonaparte, Premier Conſul de la Republique Françaiſe, un Courier à Londres. Il eſt Porteur d'une Lettre du Premier Conſul de la Republique pour Sa Majeſté Le Roi d'Angleterre. Je vous prie de donner les Ordres néceſſaires pour qu'il puiſſe vous la remettre ſans intermédiaire. Cette Démarche annonce d'elle même l'Importance de ſon Objet.

Reçevez, Miloid, l'Aſſurance de ma plus haute Conſideration.

(Signé) CH. MAU. TALLEYRAND.

Paris, le 5 Nivoſe, An 8 de la Rep. Fr.

TRANSLATION.

MY LORD,

I diſpatch, by order of General Bonaparte, Firſt Conſul of the French Republic, a Meſſenger to London: he is the Bearer of a Letter from the Firſt Conſul of the French Republic to his Majeſty the King of England. I requeſt you to give the neceſſary orders that he may be enabled to deliver it directly into your own hands. This ſtep, in itſelf, announces the importance of its object.

Accept, my Lord, the aſſurance of my higheſt conſideration.

(Signed) CH. MAU. TALLEYRAND.

Paris, 5th Nivoſe, 8th Year of the French Republic. (Dec. 25, 1799.)

COPY.

République Françaiſe—Souveraineté du Peuple Liberté—Egalité.

Bonaparte, Premier Conſul de la République à Sa Majeſté le Roi de la Grande Brétagne et d'Irlande.

Paris, le 5 Nivoſe, An 8 de la République.

Appelé par le Vœu de la Nation Françaiſe à occuper la premiere Magiſtrature de la République, je crois convenable en entrant en Charge d'en faire directement Part à votre Majeſté.

La Guerre qui depuis Huit Ans ravage les Quatre Parties du Monde, doit-elle être eternelle? N'eſt-il donc aucun Moyen de s'entendre?

Comment les Deux Nations les plus éclairées de l'Europe, puiſſantes et fortes plus que ne l'exigent leur Sureté et leur Independance, peuvent-elles ſacrifier à des Idées de vaine Grandeur, le Bien du Commerce, la Proſperité Intérieure, le Bonheur des Familles? Comment ne ſentent-elles pas que la Paix eſt le premier des Beſoins, comme la premiere des Gloires.

Ces Sentimens ne peuvent pas être étrangers au Cœur de votre Majeſté, qui gouverne une Nation libre, et dans le ſeul But de la rendre heureuſe.

Votre Majeſté ne verra dans cette Ouverture que mon Déſir ſincère de contribuer efficacement pour la ſéconde Fois à la Pacification générale, par une Demarche prompte, toute de Confiance, et dégagée

de ces Formes qui, néceſſaires peut-être pour déguiſer la Dépendance des Etats faibles, ne décèlent dans les Etats forts que le Déſir mutuel de ſe tromper.

La France, l'Angleterre, par l'Abus de leurs Forces, peuvent long Tems encore, pour le Malheur de tous les Peuple, en retarder l'Epuiſement; mais j'oſe le dire, le Sort de toutes les Nations civiliſées eſt attaché à la Fin d'une Guerre qui embraſe le Monde entier.

De votre Majeſté,

(Signé) BONAPARTE.

TRANSLATION,

French Republic — Sovereignty of the People — Liberty — Equality.

Bonaparte, Firſt Conſul of the Republic, to his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and of Ireland.

Paris, the 5th Nivoſe, 8th Year of the Republic.

CALLED by the wiſhes of the French Nation to occupy the Firſt Magiſtracy of the Republic, I think it proper, on entering into office, to make a direct communication of it to your Majeſty.

The war which for eight years has ravaged the four quarters of the world, muſt it be eternal? Are there no means of coming to an underſtanding?

How can the two moſt enlightened nations of Europe, powerful and ſtrong beyond what their ſafety and independence require, ſacrifice to ideas of vain greatneſs, the benefits of commerce, internal proſperity, and the happineſs of families? How is it that they do not feel that peace is of the firſt neceſſity, as well as of the firſt glory?

Theſe ſentiments cannot be foreign to the heart of your Majeſty, who reigns over a free nation, and with the ſole view of rendering it happy.

Your Majeſty will only ſee in this overture my ſincere deſire to contribute efficaciouſly, for the ſecond time, to a general pacification, by a ſtep, ſpeedy, entirely of confidence, and diſengaged from thoſe forms which, neceſſary perhaps to diſguiſe the dependence of weak States, prove only in thoſe which are ſtrong the mutual deſire of deceiving each other.

France and England, by the abuſe of their ſtrength, may ſtill, for a long time, for the misfortune of all nations, retard the period of their being exhauſted.—But I will venture to ſay it, the fate of all civiliſed nations is attached to the termination of a war which involves the whole world.

Of your Majeſty,

(Signed) BONAPARTE

SIR, Downing-ſtreet, Jan. 4, 1800.

I HAVE received and laid before the King the two letters which you have tranſmitted to me, and his Majeſty, ſeeing no reaſon to depart from thoſe forms which have long been eſtabliſhed in Europe for tranſacting buſineſs with Foreign States, has commanded me to return, in his name, the Official Anſwer, which I ſend you herewith incloſed.

I have the honour to be,
With high conſideration, Sir,
Your moſt obed. humble ſervant,

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

To the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, &c. at Paris.

NOTE.

THE King has given frequent proofs of his ſincere deſire for the re-eſtabliſhment of ſecure and permanent tranquillity in Europe. He neither is, nor has been engaged in any conteſt for a vain and falſe glory. He has had no other view than that of maintaining againſt all aggreſſion, the rights and happineſs of his ſubjects.

For theſe he has contended againſt an unprovoked attack: and for the ſame objects he is ſtill obliged to contend; nor can he hope that this neceſſity could be removed by entering, at the preſent moment, into negociation with thoſe whom a freſh revolution has ſo recently placed in the exerciſe of power in France.—Since no real advantage can ariſe from ſuch negociation to the great and deſirable object of general peace, until it ſhall diſtinctly appear that thoſe cauſes have ceaſed to operate which originally produced the war, and by which it has ſince been protracted, and, in more than one inſtance, renewed.

The ſame ſyſtem, to the prevalence of which France juſtly aſcribes all her preſent miſeries, is that which has alſo involved the reſt of Europe in a long and deſtructive warfare, of a nature long ſince unknown to the practice of civiliſed nations. For the extenſion of this ſyſtem, and for the extermination of all eſtabliſhed governments the reſources of France have from year to year, and in the midſt of the moſt unparalleled diſtreſs been laviſhed and exhauſted. To this indiſcriminate ſpirit of deſtruction, the Netherlands, the United Provinces, the Swiſs Cantons (his majeſty's ancient friends and allies), have ſucceſſively been ſacrificed. Germany has been ravaged; Italy, though now reſcued from its invaders, has been made the ſcene of unbounded rapine and anarchy. His majeſty has himſelf been compelled to maintain an arduous and burdenſome conteſt

for the independence and exiſtence of his kingdoms.

Nor have theſe calamities been confined to Europe alone; they have been extended to the moſt diſtant quarters of the world, and even to countries ſo remote both in ſituation and intereſt from the preſent conteſt, that the very exiſtence of ſuch a war was, perhaps, unknown to thoſe who found themſelves ſuddenly involved in all its horrors.

While ſuch a ſyſtem continues to prevail, and while the blood and treaſure of a numerous and powerful nation can be laviſhed in its ſupport, experience has ſhewn that no defence but that of open and ſteady hoſtility can be availing. The moſt ſolemn treaties have only prepared the way for freſh aggreſſion: and it is to a determined reſiſtance alone that is now due whatever remains in Europe of ſtability for property, perſonal liberty, for ſocial order, or for the free exerciſe of religion.

For the ſecurity, therefore, of theſe eſſential objects, his majeſty cannot place his reliance on the mere renewal of general profeſſions of pacific diſpoſitions. Such profeſſions have been repeatedly held out by all thoſe who have ſucceſſively directed the reſources of France to the deſtruction of Europe; and whom the preſent rulers have declared to have been all from the beginning, and uniformly, incapable of maintaining the relations of amity and peace.

Greatly, indeed, will his majeſty rejoice whenever it ſhall appear that the danger to which his own dominions, and thoſe of his allies, have been ſo long expoſed has really ceaſed; whenever he ſhall be ſatisfied that the neceſſity of reſiſtance is at an end: that after the experience of ſo many years of crimes and miſeries, better principles have ultimately prevailed in France; and that all the gigantic projects of ambition, and all the reſtleſs ſchemes of deſtruction which have endangered the very exiſtence of civil ſociety, have, at length, been finally relinquiſhed:—but the conviction of ſuch a change, however agreeable to his majeſty's wiſhes, can reſult only from experience, and from the evidence of facts.

The beſt and moſt natural pledge of its reality and permanence, would be the reſtoration of that line of princes which for ſo many centuries maintained the French nation in proſperity at home, and in conſideration and reſpect abroad:—ſuch an event would at once have removed, and will at any time remove, all obſtacles in the way of negociation or peace. It would confirm to France the unmoleſted enjoyment of its ancient territory, and it would give to all the other nations of Europe, in tranquillity and peace, that ſecurity which they are now compelled to ſeek by other means.

But, deſirable as ſuch an event muſt be both to France and to the world, it is not to this mode excluſively that his majeſty limits the poſſibility of ſecure and ſolid pacification. His majeſty makes no claim to preſcribe to France what ſhall be the form of her government, or in whoſe hands ſhe ſhall veſt the authority neceſſary for conducting the affairs of a great and powerful nation.

His majeſty looks only to the ſecurity of his own dominions and thoſe of his allies, and to the general ſafety of Europe. Whenever he ſhall judge that ſuch ſecurity can in any manner be attained, as reſulting either from the internal ſituation of that country, from whoſe internal ſituation the danger has ariſen, or from ſuch other circumſtances of whatever nature as may produce the ſame end, his majeſty will eagerly embrace the opportunity to concert with his allies the means of immediate and general pacification.

Unhappily no ſuch ſecurity hitherto exiſts; no ſufficient evidence of the principles by which the new government will be directed; no reaſonable ground by which to judge of its ſtability. In this ſituation it can for the preſent only remain for his majeſty to purſue, in conjunction with other powers, thoſe exertions of juſt and defenſive war, which his regard to the happineſs of his ſubjects will never permit him either to continue beyond the neceſſity in which they originated, or to terminate on any other grounds than ſuch as may beſt contribute to the ſecure enjoyment of their tranquillity, their conſtitution, and their independence. GRENVILLE.

Downing-ſtreet, Jan. 4, 1800.

To the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, &c. at Paris.

Letter from the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs at Paris to Lord Grenville.

Paris, 24 Nivoſe, 8th Year, (Jan. 14, 1800)

My Lord,

I LOST no time in laying before the firſt conſul of the republic the official note, under date of the 14th Nivoſe, which you tranſmitted to me; and I am charged to forward the anſwer, equally official, which which you will find annexed.

Receive, my lord, the aſſurance of my high conſideration.

(Signed) Ch. Mau. Talleyrand.

Miniſter for Foreign Affairs at London.

NOTE.

The official note, under date the 14th Nivoſe, the 8th year, addreſſed by the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, having been laid before the firſt conſul of the French republic, he obſerved with ſurpriſe, that it reſted upon an opinion which is not exact reſpecting the origin and conſequences of the preſent war. Very far from its being France which provoked it, ſhe had, it muſt be remembered, from the commencement of her revolution, ſolemnly proclaimed her love of peace and her diſinclination to conqueſts, her reſpect for the independence of all governments: and it is not to be doubted that, occupied at that time entirely with her own internal affairs, ſhe would have avoided taking part in thoſe of Europe, and would have remained faithful to her declarations.

But from an oppoſite diſpoſition, as ſoon as the French revolution had broken out, almoſt all Europe entered into a league for its deſtruction. The aggreſſion was real, long time before it was public; internal reſiſtance was excited; its opponents were favourably received; their extravagant declamations were ſupported; the French nation was inſulted in the perſon of its agents; and England ſet particularly this example by the diſmiſſal of the miniſter accredited to her.—Finally, France was, in fact, attacked in her independence, in her honour, and in her ſafety, long time before the war was declared.

Thus it is to the projects of ſubjection, diſſolution, and diſmemberment, which were prepared againſt her, and the execution of which was ſeveral times attempted and purſued, that France has a right to impute the evils which ſhe has ſuffered, and thoſe which have afflicted Europe. Such projects, for a long time without example, with reſpect to ſo powerful a nation, could not fail to bring on the moſt fatal conſequences.

Aſſailed on all ſides, the republic could not but extend univerſally the efforts of her defence, and it is only for the maintenance of her own independence that ſhe has made uſe of thoſe means which ſhe poſſeſſed, in her own ſtrength and the courage of her citizens. As long as ſhe ſaw that her enemies obſtinately refuſed to recogniſe her rights, ſhe counted only upon the energy of her reſiſtance; but as ſoon as they were obliged to abandon the hope of invaſion, ſhe ſought for means of conciliation, and manifeſted pacific intentions; and if theſe have not been efficacious; if, in the midſt of the critical circumſtances of her internal ſituation, which the revolution and the war have ſucceſſively brought on, the former depoſitaries of the executive authority in France have not always ſhewn as much moderation as the nation itſelf has ſhewn courage, it muſt above all be imputed to the fatal and perſevering animoſity with which the reſources of England have been laviſhed to accompliſh the ruin of France.

But if the wiſhes of his Britannic majeſty (in conformity with his aſſurances) are, in uniſon with thoſe of the French republic, for the reeſtabliſhment of peace, why, inſtead of attempting the apology of the war, ſhould not attention be rather paid to the means of terminating it? And what obſtacle can prevent a mutual underſtanding, of which the utility is reciprocal, and is felt, eſpecially when the firſt conſul of the republic has perſonally given ſo many proofs of his eagerneſs to put an end to the calamities of war, and of his diſpoſition to maintain the rigid obſervance of all treaties concluded?

The firſt conſul of the republic could not doubt that his Britannic majeſty recogniſed the right of nations to chooſe the form of their government, ſince it is from the exerciſe of this right that he holds his crown; but he has been unable to comprehend how to this fundamental principle, upon which reſts the exiſtence of political ſocieties, the miniſter of his majeſty could annex inſinuations which tend to an interference in the internal affairs of the republic, and which are no leſs injurious to the French nation and to its government, than it would be to England and to his majeſty, if a ſort of invitation were held out in favour of that republican government, of which England adopted the forms in the middle of the laſt century, or an exhortation to recal to the throne that family whom their birth had placed there, and whom a revolution compelled to deſcend from it.

If at periods, not far diſtant, when the conſtitutional ſyſtem of the republic preſented neither the ſtrength nor the ſolidity which it contains at preſent, his Britannic majeſty thought himſelf enabled to invite a negociation and pacific conferences; how is it poſſible that he ſhould not be eager to renew negociations to which the preſent and reciprocal ſituation of affairs promiſes a rapid progreſs. On every ſide the voice of nations and of humanity implores the concluſion of a war, marked already by ſuch great calamities, and the prolongation of which threatens Europe with an univerſal convulſion and irremediable evils. It is, therefore, to put a ſtop to the courſe of theſe cala-

mities, or in order that their terrible conſequences may be reproached to thoſe only who ſhall have provoked them, that the firſt conſul of the French republic propoſes to put an immediate end to hoſtilities, by agreeing to a ſuſpenſion of arms, and naming plenipotentiaries on each ſide, who ſhould repair to Dunkirk, or any other town as advantageouſly ſituated for the quickneſs of the reſpective communications, and who ſhall apply themſelves without delay to effect the reeſtabliſhment of peace and good underſtanding between the French republic and England.

The firſt conſul offers to give the paſſports which may be neceſſary for this purpoſe.

(Signed) Ch. Mau. Talleyrand.

Paris, the 24th Nivoſe, (14th Jan. 1800,) eighth year of the French Republic.

Letter from Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs at Paris.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, Jan. 20, 1800.

I HAVE the honour to incloſe to you the anſwer which his majeſty has directed me to return to the official note which you tranſmitted to me. I have the honour to be, with high conſideration, Sir,

You moſt obedient humble ſervant,

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

To the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, &c. at Paris.

NOTE.

THE official note tranſmitted by the miniſter for foreign affairs in France, and received by the underſigned on the 18th inſt. has been laid before the king.

His majeſty cannot forbear expreſſing the concern with which he obſerves in that note, that the unprovoked aggreſſions of France, the ſole cauſe and origin of the war, are ſyſtematically defended by her preſent ruler under the ſame injurious pretences by which they were originally attempted to be diſguiſed. His majeſty will not enter into the refutation of allegations now univerſally exploded, and (in ſo far as they reſpect his majeſty's conduct) not only in themſelves utterly groundleſs, but contradicted both by the internal evidence of the tranſactions to which they relate, and alſo by the expreſs teſtimony (given at the time) of the government of France itſelf.

With reſpect to the object of the note, his majeſty can only refer to the anſwer which he has already given.

He has explained, without reſerve, the obſtacles which, in his judgment, preclude at the preſent moment all hope of advantage from negociation. All the inducements to treat, which are relied upon in the French official note; the perſonal diſpoſitions which are ſaid to prevail for the concluſion of peace, and for the future obſervance of treaties; the power of inſuring the effect of thoſe diſpoſitions, ſuppoſing them to exiſt; and the ſolidity of the ſyſtem newly eſtabliſhed, after ſo rapid a ſucceſſion of revolutions; all theſe are points which can be known only from that teſt to which his majeſty has already referred them—the reſult of experience and the evidence of facts.

With that ſincerity and plainneſs which his anxiety for the reeſtabliſhment of peace indiſpenſably required, his majeſty has pointed out to France the ſureſt and ſpeedieſt means for the attainment of that great object. But he has declared in terms equally explicit, and with the ſame ſincerity, that he entertains no deſire to preſcribe to a foreign nation the form of its government; that he looks only to the ſecurity of his own dominions and of Europe; and that whenever that eſſential object can in his judgment be, in any manner whatever, ſufficiently provided for, he will eagerly concert with his allies the means of immediate and joint negociation for the reeſtabliſhment of general tranquillity.

To theſe declarations his majeſty ſteadily adheres, and it is only on the grounds thus ſtated, that his regard to the ſafety of his ſubjects will ſuffer him to renounce that ſyſtem of vigorous defence, to which, under the favour of Providence, his kingdoms owe the ſecurity of thoſe bleſſings which they now enjoy.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

Downing-ſtreet, Jan. 20, 1800.

IRISH PARLIAMENT.

THE lord-lieutenant opened the parliament with the following ſpeech:

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'I have received his majeſty's commands to aſſemble you in parliament.

'Upon a review of the important and glorious events that have diſtinguiſhed the period which has elapſed ſince I laſt addreſſed you, the moſt gratifying and encouraging reflections preſent themſelves to our conſideration.

'By the brilliant courſe of victories achieved by the combined Imperial armies, the various kingdoms and ſtates of Italy,

have been delivered from the ravages and the tyranny of the French.

'The throne of Naples, and our friendly connection with that kingdom, have been reſtored.

'The French expedition to Egypt has been checked in its career by the exertions of the Turkiſh arms, aſſiſted by a ſmall detachment of his majeſty's forces, and the gallantry of their heroic commander.

'The hoſtile plans of the common enemy in India, have terminated in the total deſtruction of the power which had been miſled by their artifices, and through the timely vigorous and deciſive counſels of the marquis Welleſley, and the conſummate ſkill and valour of his majeſty's generals, officers and troops, the Britiſh poſſeſſions in that quarter of the globe have been beneficially extended and effectually ſecured.

'By the deſcent of his majeſty's forces and of his Ruſſian allies on the coaſt of Holland, the Dutch fleet has been happily reſcued from the power of the enemy: and although the ſeaſon, peculiarly unfavourable to military operations, produced the neceſſity of relinquiſhing an enterpriſe ſo fortunately began, and prevented the complete accompliſhment of his majeſty's views, yet the reſult of that expedition has been peculiarly beneficial to this kingdom in removing all fear of attack on our coaſts from a quarter whence it had been ſo often planned, and in enabling his majeſty's fleets to direct their vigilance excluſively to the ſingle port whence the enemy can attack this country with any hope even of temporary ſucceſs.

'My utmoſt care has been exerted to carry into execution the extraordinary powers which you have committed to my diſcretion, with vigour, and at the ſame time with moderation. All tendency to inſurrection has been effectually repreſſed; but it gives me true concern to acquaint you, that the painful neceſſity of acting with ſeverity has been too frequently impoſed upon me; and although public tranquillity has been in a great meaſure reſtored, yet I have to lament that a diſpoſition to outrage and conſpiracy ſtill continues in ſeveral diſtricts; that much induſtry is uſed to keep alive the ſpirit of diſaffection, and to encourage among the lower claſſes the hopes of French aſſiſtance.

'I truſt that the recent revolution in France cannot fail to open the eyes of ſuch of his majeſty's ſubjects as have been deluded by the artifices which have been unremittingly employed to withdraw them from their allegiance; and that it will reſtore and increaſe the love of conſtitutional order and of regulated freedom, by demonſtrating that the principles of falſe liberty tend ultimately to deſpotiſm, and that the criminal ſtruggles of democratic factions naturally cloſe in military uſurpation.

'So long as the French government, under whatever form it exerts its influence, ſhall perſevere in the ſchemes of deſtruction, and projects of ambition, ſubverſive at once of the liberties of Europe and the ſecurity of his majeſty's dominions, there can be no wiſe alternative but to proſecute the war with increaſing energy. It is by great exertions alone that either their views of aggrandiſement can be fruſtrated, or a ſolid peace procured. His majeſty has therefore availed himſelf with peculiar ſatisfaction of the cordial and great aſſiſtance which has been afforded him by his faithful ally, the emperor of Ruſſia, and has thought right to make every exertion for augmenting the diſpoſable military force of his own dominions: his majeſty therefore has been highly gratified in accepting the ſervices ſo generally offered by his Engliſh militia; and I am to expreſs to you the entire confidence which his majeſty feels, that the zeal and loyalty of his militia of this kingdom, in forwarding at this important criſis the active operations of the empire, will not be leſs prompt and conſpicuous.

'The apprehenſion of general ſcarcity which ſome time ſince took place, called for my early attention to that moſt important ſubject; and I was induced, with the advice of the council, to offer premiums for the early importation of grain. This meaſure will, I flatter myſelf, meet your approbation; and I have full confidence in your wiſdom, if it ſhall be neceſſary, to reſort to any further extraordinary means for procuring a ſupply.

'Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

'The evident neceſſity of ſecuring this kingdom from every danger, whether foreign or domeſtic, and of rendering the ſucceſs of invaſion, if attempted, impracticable, will demonſtrate to you the wiſdom of continuing that enlarged ſyſtem of defence you have ſo wiſely adopted.

'I have therefore ordered the public accounts and eſtimates for the enſuing year to be laid before you, and have the fulleſt confidence that in the ſupply which ſuch a ſituation ſhall appear to you to require, you will equally conſult the ſafety of the kingdom, and the honour of his majeſty's government.

'I am induced to hope that the great increaſe of the revenue which has taken place

in the preſent year, may enable you to raiſe the ſums which may be wanted for the current ſervice without any diſtreſſing addition to the burdens of the people.

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'I recommend to your uſual attention the agriculture, the manufactures, and particularly the linen manufacture of Ireland; and I doubt not that the Proteſtant charter ſchools, and thoſe public inſtitutions, whether of charity or education, which have been protected by your liberality, will ſtill receive a judicious encouragement.

'It will be for your wiſdom to conſider how far it will be neceſſary to continue any of thoſe extraordinary powers with which you have ſtrengthened the authority of his majeſty's government, for the more effectual ſuppreſſion and puniſhment of rebellious conſpiracy and outrage.

'His majeſty places the moſt entire reliance upon your firmneſs and wiſdom, and he has no doubt that you will anxiouſly purſue ſuch meaſures as ſhall be beſt calculated for bringing the preſent war to an honourable termination, and for reſtoring the country to permanent tranquillity.

'It will be my conſtant object to attend to your ſuggeſtions and advice, that I may by this means moſt beneficially accompliſh the commands I have received from his majeſty, and moſt effectually forward the intereſts and happineſs of this kingdom.'

Lord Loftus, in the commons, moved the addreſs.

Sir Laurence Parſons got up to move an amendment—he was not aſtoniſhed at the ſilence obſerved in the ſpeech with reſpect to the queſtion of Incorporative Union, ſince in the laſt ſeſſion it was virtually rejected by parliament. In the interval ſince the cloſe of that ſeſſion, the miniſter had been trying practices upon the people to induce them to declare againſt the ſenſe of the legiſlature, which he had thus found unfavourable to his wiſhes; thoſe practices were as public as they were infamous, and they proved to the mind of every man, that though the ſpeech was ſilent on the ſubject to-day, it was yet the determination of government, when they ſhould have ſtrengthened themſelves by a continuation of their practices, to propoſe this ſubject, which had already met ſo early as marked reprobation from both parliament and people.

What availed it to parliament whether they were turned out of that houſe by the ſword of a Cromwell, or the gold of a miniſter? The conſtitution was alike violated in either inſtance, and deſpotiſm ſubſtituted for free government. He denied that the people of the country could conſider the meaſure with freedom ſince they were under terror of foreign troops, and the intimidation of martial law. But when he looked to the conſtitution of 1782, which had recovered for Ireland the liberty and commerce that the injuſtice and tyranny of Britain had ſtripped her of, he would aſk, could the houſe agree to deſtroy that conſtitution, and abſolutely depoſe themſelves? If they did, they would declare themſelves incapable and unworthy of legiſlating for their country. Sir Laurence then recapitulated and enforced a variety of arguments, which had been formerly uſed, and concluded with moving the following amendment:—'Humbly to aſſure his majeſty, that they conceived the fate and welfare of this country inſeparably connected with that of England—that it was the intereſt of both that each country ſhould enjoy all the bleſſings of a free conſtitution, which free conſtitution this country owed to her ſpirited claim and aſſertion, in 1782, of an independent legiſlature reſident in Ireland, and to the liberality of Great Britain in ſanctioning that claim; and that this houſe would at all times conſider it their bounden duty to ſupport and preſerve that conſtitution.'

Lord Caſtlereagh replied to the hon. baronet, and accounted for the ſilence obſerved in his majeſty's ſpeech, by ſtating that it was the determination of government not to bring forward the meaſure of union, until ſanctioned by the approbation of the country at large. His lordſhip having thus explained the circumſtance of the ſpeech being ſilent on this point, he begged to be underſtood, that from the ſilence of the ſpeech, no inference was to be made that miniſters were not determined, as ſoon as a full attendance of that houſe could be obtained, to bring forward the ſubject: it was his intention, as ſoon as the preſent motions were diſpoſed of, to move for a call of the houſe on Monday fortnight, for this very purpoſe. But what was the opinion of the country?—nineteen of the principal counties, five-ſevenths of the country in local extent; all the great commercial towns, Dublin excepted, and much more than that proportion in property, had called for the diſcuſſion of the meaſure, and the majority of them had expreſſed their conviction that the meaſure was a beneficial one. Government had no wiſh but that the meaſure ſhould be fully and fairly conſidered; and for this reaſon, it was his intention to

lay it, with all its details, after due notice given, before the houſe, at a time when it would be attended by many members now unavoidably abſent.

The right hon. Mr. Latouche, Mr. Buſhe, the attorney general, ſir Boyle Roche, ſir John Blaquiere, &c. ſpoke againſt the amendment, and Mr. G. Ponſonby, ſir J. Parnel, Mr. Fitzgerald, and Mr. Egan, in ſupport of it.

At eight o'clock in the morning, Mr. Grattan was introduced, and took his ſeat: his health ſeemed much impaired, and his ſtrength exhauſted.

Mr. Grattan now aroſe, but from extreme weakneſs, after a ſentence or two in a very low tone of voice, was obliged to continue his ſpeech ſitting.—'If you, ſir, will permit me to addreſs you, weak and exhauſted as I am, and in my ſlow manner, I will give you the teſtimony of one man againſt the meaſure of a legiſlative union—a meaſure in which the honour and welfare of this houſe and this country are involved—a meaſure which is nothing leſs than an alienation of the inheritance of the land, and a ſurrender, not only of the rights, but the underſtanding of the people of Ireland. He then proceeded to examine the queſtion in all its different relations, and delivered a ſpeech uncommonly eloquent and argumentative in ſupport of the amendment—he concluded with the following expreſſions, 'Sir, I ſay if you ſurrender your parliament, you ſurrender yourſelves up to eternal infamy, and your country to irrevocable deſtruction. I cannot be accuſed, ſir, of perſonal intereſt in the counſel which I give. Weak and exhauſted as I am, my ſtrength is ſmall—my days, perhaps, but few—I come here poſſibly to give my laſt vote—perhaps to expire on your floor, but it ſhall be in the diſcharge of the moſt ſacred of duties—the preſervation of the liberties of my country, and my laſt breath ſhall be offered on the ſame altar on which Iriſh independence is to be the victim.'

The chancellor of the exchequer aroſe next in oppoſition to the amendment, and was followed by ſir Laurence Parſons in reply.

The queſtion was put, and on a diviſion the numbers were, for the amendment 96—Againſt it 138.

Tellers for ayes, ſir L. Parſons and Mr. Walſh—for the noes, lord Loftus and Mr. D. Browne.

PROCEEDINGS *in the Fourth* SESSION *of the Eighteenth Parliament of* Great Britain; *continued from Vol* CV, *Page* 273.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Tueſday, January 21,

THE houſe met purſuant to adjournment; the next day

Lord Grenville acquainted their lordſhips, that he had it in command to deliver a meſſage from his majeſty to that houſe, and to lay before the houſe certain papers referred to therein. His lordſhip then moved that his majeſty's meſſage be then read, which was done accordingly, and is as follows:

'GEORGE R.

'The ſupplies granted in the commencement of the preſent ſeſſion having been calculated to provide only for the firſt months of the year, his majeſty now recommends it to the houſe to make ſuch further proviſion as they may judge neceſſary under the preſent circumſtances for the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice, and for the vigorous proſecution of the war: and his majeſty has given directions that the proper eſtimates for this purpoſe ſhould be laid before the houſe.

'His majeſty has thought proper on this occaſion to direct that there ſhould be laid before this houſe copies of communications recently received from the enemy, and of the anſwers which have been returned thereto by his majeſty's command.

'His majeſty entertains the fulleſt confidence that thoſe anſwers will appear to this houſe to have been conformable to that line of conduct which was required from his majeſty on this occaſion, by his regard to all the moſt important intereſts of his dominions: and his majeſty having no object more at heart than that of contributing, as ſoon as the ſituation of affairs ſhall render it practicable, to the eſtabliſhment of the general tranquillity of Europe, on a ſure and ſolid foundation; and of providing effectually for the ſecurity and permanent proſperity of his faithful people, places a firm reliance on the continued ſupport of his parliament, and on the zeal and perſeverance of his ſubjects, in ſuch meaſures as may beſt tend to confirm the ſignal advantages which have been obtained to the common cauſe in the courſe of the laſt campaign, and to conduct the great conteſt in which his majeſty is engaged, to a ſafe and honorable concluſion. G. R.'

His lordſhip then preſented the various ſtate papers referred to in the foregoing meſſage: after which he moved, that his majeſty's meſſage be taken into conſideration on Tueſday next, and that their lordſhips be ſummoned for that day: which was ordered accordingly.

Lord Grenville then preſented a ſecond meſſage from his majeſty, which was very conciſe, and ſimply related to the accommodation of the Ruſſian auxiliary troops in his majeſty's European dominions during the winter. The communication briefly informed their lordſhips of the circumſtance of the corps of Ruſſian troops, who were actively employed in his majeſty's ſervice during the late campaign—being neceſſarily retained in winter quarters during the inclement ſeaſon, and ſuggeſting to the houſe the propriety of concurring to enable his majeſty to make due proviſion and convenient accommodation for the troops of his faithful ally, within his dominions, during the winter ſeaſon, &c.

His lordſhip moved that the foregoing meſſage be taken into conſideration on the ſame day with the firſt, which was ordered accordingly.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Tueſday, Jan. 21. The houſe having met, purſuant to adjournment, the ſpeaker read a letter from the duke of York, dated the 10th of October, at head quarters, ſtating that the thanks of the houſe had been tranſmitted to general Abercrombie, and the officers and troops ſerving under him, for their conduct during the attack at the Helder: in reply to which they expreſſed their high ſenſe of the honour, and conceived it the moſt flattering teſtimonial that could be conferred on them, for their ſervices, fighting in defence of their country.

A letter was alſo read from admiral Mitchell, dated October 15, expreſſive of the high ſenſe entertained by him, and the officers and men ſerving under him, for the thanks of the houſe, in conſequence of their capture of the Dutch fleet.

On Wedneſday, Jan. 22, Mr. Pitt preſented a meſſage from his majeſty, the ſame as that preſented by lord Grenville in the other houſe, which Mr. Pitt moved to be taken into conſideration on Monday next.—Agreed to.

Mr. Pitt then brought up the ſeveral communications from France, and the anſwers thereto, which were ordered to be printed, and taken into conſideration the ſame day with the meſſage.

Mr. Hobhouſe aſked, if the laſt note, in reply to Bonaparte's ſecond communication, was among the papers.

Mr. Pitt replied in the affirmative.

[To be continued.]

DEATH OF GENERAL WASHINGTON.

LETTERS from Baltimore, dated the 21ſt of December laſt, announce the death of that great and good character, general Waſhington, who died of an inflammation in his throat on the 15th of the ſame month, at his ſeat at mount Vernon, in the 68th year of his age, after an illneſs of only 24 hours. Any encomium on this truly diſtinguiſhed character would be ſuperfluous. Having diſplayed in his own perſon the rare combination of talents at once military and pacific, that would do honour to the firſt general and firſt ſtateſman of any age or country, and evinced in private life, the moſt unblemiſhed probity, and the moſt endearing manners; he has alſo enjoyed the almoſt excluſive happineſs of dying in full poſſeſſion of his reputation and glory.

At a meeting of the houſe of repreſentatives in Philadelphia on the 19th, the following meſſage was received from the preſident, communicating a letter from Tobias Lear, eſq. private ſecretary to general Waſhington, announcing his death.

'Gentlemen of the ſenate and gentlemen of the houſe of repreſentatives,

'The letter herewith tranſmitted will inform you, that it has pleaſed Divine Providence to remove from this life, our excellent fellow citizen George Waſhington, by the purity of his character and a long ſeries of ſervices to his country, rendered illuſtrious through the world. It remains for an affectionate and grateful people, in whoſe hearts he can never die, to pay ſuitable honour to his memory.

JOHN ADAMS.'

'Sir, Mount Vernon, Dec. 15, 1799.

'It is with inexpreſſible grief, that I have to announce to you the death of the great and good general Waſhington. He died laſt evening between ten and eleven o'clock, after a ſhort illneſs of about twenty-four hours. His diſorder was an inflam-

matory ſore throat, which proceeded from a cold, of which he made but little complaint on Friday. On Saturday morning about three o'clock, he became ill. Dr. Craick attended him in the morning, and Dr. Dick, of Alexandria, and Dr. Brown, of Port Tobacco, were ſoon after called in. Every medical aſſiſtance was afforded, but without the deſired effect. His laſt ſcene correſponded with the whole tenor of his life. Not a groan nor a complaint eſcaped him, in extreme diſtreſs. With perfect reſignation and a full poſſeſſion of his reaſon, he cloſed his well-ſpent life.

I have the honour to be, &c.

TOBIAS LEAR.'

The Preſident of the United States.

General Marſhall, after expreſſing in ſtrong and elegant terms, the deep regret which was univerſally excited by the death of general Waſhington, moved the following reſolution: 'That the houſe do wait on the preſident of the United States, in condolence of the mournful event;—that the ſpeaker's chair be ſhrouded with black, and the members and officers of the houſe wear black during the ſeſſion;—and that a committee, in conjunction with one from the ſenate, be appointed to conſider on the moſt ſuitable manner of paying honour to the memory of the man, firſt in war, firſt in peace, and firſt in the hearts of his country.—Theſe reſolutions were unanimouſly agreed to, and ſixteen members appointed on the committee.

General Marſhall and Smith were then appointed to wait on the preſident, to know at what time it would be convenient to receive the houſe. The preſident agreed to receive them at one o'clock the ſame day. The houſe accordingly waited on him, and the ſpeaker addreſſed the preſident in the following words:

'Sir,

'The houſe of repreſentatives, penetrated with a ſenſe of the irreparable loſs ſuſtained by the nation, by the death of that great and good man, the illuſtrious and beloved Waſhington, wait on you, ſir, to expreſs their condolence on this melancholy and diſtreſſing event.'

To which the preſident made the following anſwer:

'Gentlemen of the Houſe of Repreſentatives,

'I receive with great reſpect and affection the condolence of the houſe of repreſentatives on the melancholy and afflicting event in the death of the moſt illuſtrious and beloved perſonage which this country ever produced; I ſympathize with you, with the nation, and with the good men through the world, in this irreparable loſs ſuſtained by us all.

JOHN ADAMS.'

To give the people a public opportunity of regretting the irreparable loſs which their country has ſuſtained by the death of this great man, the general aſſembly of Maryland have alſo reſolved unanimouſly, that a meſſage from the legiſlature be communicated to the governor, requeſting him to appoint a day of mourning, humiliation, and prayer throughout the ſtate, and to recommend it to the citizens thereof to aſſemble in their reſpective places of worſhip, to teſtify in the moſt public manner their veneration for the memory of the illuſtrious general Waſhington, and to derive from the juſt eulogium of his meritorious ſervices, the beſt motives for the imitation of his virtues.

Feeling the moſt undiſſembled ſorrow on the occaſion, and anxious to pay every tribute of reſpect to the memory of the departed friend of his country, they reſolved unanimouſly, that there be immediately furniſhed a ſcarf and hatband for the governor, the preſident of the ſenate, and each of the attending members of the ſenate, the ſpeaker, and each of the attending members of the houſe of delegates, and members of the council, each of the officers and clerks attached to the ſenate and houſe of delegates, the chancellor, and ſuch of the judges of the general court, and all other officers of the ſtate and general government as are now in the city of Annapolis, to be worn during the ſeſſion, as the external mark of their unfeigned grief.

The following is an account of the ceremony obſerved at the interment of this great man.

On Wedneſday the 18th of December his remains were conſigned to the tomb, with the moſt ſolemn honours and the greateſt funeral pomp. On the melancholy occaſion, a multitude of perſons aſſembled for many miles round at Mount Vernon, the choice abode and laſt reſidence of this illuſtrious chief. Between three and four o'clock, the ſound of artillery from a veſſel in the river, firing minute guns, announced the commencement of the ceremony. The proceſſion was then formed and moved on in the following order:

Cavalry, infantry, and guards, with arms reverſed.

Muſic.—Clergy.

The general's horſe, with his ſaddle, holſters, and piſtols.

The corpſe, ſupported by colonel Little, Marſtelle, Gilpin, Payne, Ramſay, and Simms, as pall bearers.

On the ornament, at the head of the coffin, was inſcribed *Surge ad judicium*—about the middle of the coffin, *Gloria Deo*—and on the ſilver plate, General George Waſhington, departed this life on the 14th of December 1799, æt. 68.

Then followed the mourners; the maſonic brethren, and the citizens.

When the proceſſion had arrived at the bottom of the elevated lawn, on the banks of the Potomack, where the family vault is placed, the cavalry halted, the infantry marched toward the Mount, and formed their lines—the clergy, the maſonic brothers, and the citizens, deſcended to the vault, and the funeral ſervice of the church was performed. The firing was repeated from the veſſel in the river, and the ſounds echoed from the woods and hills around. Three general diſcharges by the infantry; the cavalry, and eleven pieces of artillery, which lined the banks of the Potomack at the back of the vault, paid the laſt tribute to the entombed commander in chief of the armies of the United States, and to the venerable departed hero.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Gazette.

Admiralty-office, January 21.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Ships and Veſſels at Jamaica, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated in Port Royal Harbour, Nov. 4, 1799.

Sir,

I HAVE a peculiar ſatisfaction in communicating to you, for the information of my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that his majeſty's late ſhip Hermione is again reſtored to his navy by as daring and gallant an enterprize as is to be found in our naval annals, under the command of captain Hamilton himſelf, with the boats of the Surprize only.

Captain Hamilton's own letter, with the reports accompanying it, (copies of which are incloſed) will ſufficiently explain to their lordſhips the detail of this ſervice, and the bravery with which the attack was ſupported, and leaves me only one obſervation to make on the very gallant action, which adds infinite honour to captain Hamilton as an officer, for his conception of the ſervice he was about to undertake. This was, ſir, his diſpoſition for the attack; which was, that a number of choſen men, to the amount of fifty, with himſelf, ſhould board, and the remainder in the boats to cut the cables and take the ſhip in tow.—From this manœuvre he had formed the idea, that while he was diſputing for the poſſeſſion of the ſhip, ſhe was approaching the Surprize, who was laying cloſe into the harbour, and in caſe of being beat out of the Hermione, he would have an opportunity of taking up the conteſt upon more favourable terms.

To the ſteady execution of theſe orders was owing the ſucceſs of this bold and daring undertaking, which muſt ever have rank among the foremoſt of the many gallant actions executed by our navy this war.

I find the Hermione has had a thorough repair, and is in complete order; I have therefore ordered her to be ſurveyed and valued, and ſhall commiſſion her as ſoon as the reports are made to me from the officers of the yard, by the name of the Retaliation. I have the honour to be, &c.

H. PARKER.

Surprize, Port Royal Harbour, Jamaica, Nov. 1, 1799.

Sir,

The honour of my country and the glory of the Britiſh navy, were ſtrong inducements for me to make an attempt to cut out, by the boats of his majeſty's ſhip under my command, his majeſty's late ſhip Hermione, from the harbour of Porto Cavallo, where there are about two hundred pieces of cannon mounted on the batteries.

Having well obſerved her ſituation on the 22d and 23d ult. and the evening of the 24th, being favourable, I turned the hands up to acquaint the officers and ſhip's company of my intentions to lead them to the attack, which was handſomely returned with three cheers, and that they would all follow to a man. This greatly increaſed my hopes, and I had little doubt of ſucceeding: the boats, containing one hundred men, including officers, at half paſt twelve on the morning of the 25th (after having beat the launch of the ſhip, which carried a twenty-four pounder, and twenty men, and receiving ſeveral guns and ſmall arms from the frigate) boarded; the forecaſtle was taken poſſeſſion of without much reſiſtance; the quarter deck diſputed the point a quarter of an hour, where a dreadful carnage took place; the main deck held

out much longer, and with equal ſlaughter; nor was it before both cables were cut, ſail made on the ſhip, and boats a-head to tow, that the main-deck could be called ours; they laſt of all retreated between the decks, and continued firing till their ammunition was expended; then, and not until then, did they cry for quarter. At two o'clock, the Hermione was completely ours, being out of gun-ſhot from the fort, which had for ſome time kept up a tolerable good fire. From the captain don Romond de Chalus, I am informed ſhe was nearly ready for ſea, mounting forty-four guns, with a ſhip's company of three hundred and twenty-one officers and ſailors, fifty ſix ſoldiers, and fifteen artillery men on board.

Every officer and man on this expedition behaved with an uncommon degree of valour and exertion; but I conſider it particularly my duty to mention the very gallant conduct, as well as the aid and aſſiſtance at a particular criſis I received from Mr. John M'Mullen, ſurgeon and volunteer, and Mr. Maxwell, gunner, even after the latter was dangerouſly wounded.

As the frigate was the particular object of your order of the 17th of September, I have thought proper to return into port with her. Incloſed I tranſmit you a liſt of captures during the cruiſe, alſo two liſts of killed and wounded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

E. HAMILTON.

Sir Hyde Parker, knt. &c. Jamaica.

A Liſt of the killed and wounded on Board the Hermione, in Porto Cavallo, Octo. 25, 1799; and general Statement of the Complement on Board.

Priſoners landed at Porto Cavallo the ſame day, out of which there were ninety-ſeven wounded, moſtly dangerous - - - - -	228
Eſcaped in the launch, which was rowing guard round the ſhip, with a twenty four pounder - -	20
Remain priſoners on board - -	3
On ſhore on leave, one lieutenant, one captain of troops, four pilots, and one midſhipman - - -	7
Swam on ſhore from the ſhip -	15
Killed - - - - - -	119
Toral	392

(Signed) E. HAMILTON.

A Liſt of killed in the Boats of his Majeſty's Ship Surprize, in cutting out a Privateer Schooner of ten Guns and two Sloops from the Harbour of Aruba, on the 15th of October 1799.

Mr. John Buſey, acting lieutenant, killed.

(Signed) E. HAMILTON.

A Liſt of Officers and Men, wounded on Board the Hermione, on the Attack made by the Boats of his Majeſty's Ship Surprize.

Edward Hamilton, eſq. captain, ſeveral contuſions, but not dangerous.

Mr. John Maxwell, gunner, dangerouſly wounded in ſeveral places.

John Lewis Matthews, quarter-maſter, dangerouſly.

Arthur Reed, quarter-gunner, dangerouſly.

Henry Milne, carpenter's crew, dangerouſly.

Henry Dibleen, gunner's mate, ſlightly.
Charles Livingſton, able ſeaman, ſlightly.
William Pardy, able ſeaman, ſlightly.
Robert Ball, able ſeaman, ſlightly.
Thomas Stevenſon, able ſeaman, ſlightly.
John Ingram, private marine, ſlightly.
Joſeph Titley, private marine, ſlightly.

(Signed) E. HAMILTON, captain.

(A copy) H. PARKER.

SHIPS Captured from the ENEMY.

LE Furet privateer, 14 guns, by the Viper.

L'Avanture privateer, 14 guns, by the Ariſtocrat.

Le General Brune, two guns, by the cuſtom-houſe boat.

Brilliant Spaniſh privateer, eight guns, blown up by the Revenge.

Le Renard privateer, 14 guns, by the Nemeſis and Savage.

Le Modere lugger, four guns, by the Nile.

Santa Levirata y' Animas, Spaniſh privateer, two guns, by the Caſtor.

A French brig, 12 guns, by the Echo.

Fourteen armed and eighty-one merchant veſſels, by ſir Hyde Parker's ſquadron in the Weſt Indies, ſince the 21ſt of July laſt.

Lame Duck, Dutch ſchooner, 10 guns, and two ſloops, by the Surprize.

L'Avanturier brig, 14 guns, by the Amethyſt.

L'Eclair brig, 12 guns, by the Sceptre.

THEATRE.

A DRAMATIC Romance of the fourteenth century, called JOANNA, was performed for the firſt time at Covent-garden theatre, January 16.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

Albert, Mr. Pope; Lazaro, Mr. Holman; Dorbony, Mr. Incledon; Wenzel, Mr. Waddy; Philip, Mr. H. Johnſton; Guntram, Mr. Emery; Hermit, Mr. Murray; Wolf, Mr. Munden; Romnald, Mr. Rees; Old Man, Mr. Davenport; Shepherd, Mr. Gardner.—Joanna, Mrs. Pope; Eloiſa, Mrs. H. Johnſton; Eugenio, Miſs Waters.

Albert and Lazaro are rivals in love and war. The former having defeated the latter in ſingle combat, is rewarded with the heart and hand of Joanna, with whom he reſides in his caſtle in Switzerland. After the expiration of a conſiderable time, Lazaro returns in the diſguiſe of a pilgrim, and taking advantage of a truce concluded with Albert, unites with the chieftains of ſome of the marauding bands, for which the beginning of the fourteenth century was remarkable, intereſts them to ſupport, by force of arms, a paſſion unſubdued by time and abſence, and with their aſſiſtance makes himſelf maſter of Albert's caſtle and wife. He tries every poſſible art to conquer her hatred of him, but finding all his attempts uſeleſs, he determines to have recourſe to force. Albert eſcapes from the caſtle and takes refuge with Wenzel, whoſe life he had once preſerved. Wenzel reſolves to ſacrifice his priſoner, whoſe former favours he conſidered as crimes, convinced that he was unworthy of them. In the execution of this plan, he is prevented by the interference of his ſon Philip, who reſtores Albert to liberty, and with the aſſiſtance of the mountaineers reduces the caſtle to the authority of its former maſter, and preſerves the chaſtity of Joanna.

To Kotzebue, Mr. Cumberland, the author of this dramatic romance, is indebted for the bare outline. The ſentiments, the manners, the characters, and the incidents are excluſively his own. It appears to be ſolely intended as a vehicle for the charms of muſic, and the faſcinations of ſcenery, decoration, and ſtage effect. The extremes of theatrical compoſition were never perhaps before blended in ſo extraordinary a manner.

The proprietors have not been liberal, but prodigal, in their diſburſements to render the ſpectacle magnificent and attractive. The appropriate beauty of the ſcenery, in which the rules of perſpective are critically obſerved, the ſplendour of the decorations and the richneſs of the dreſſes, have been rarely equalled.

A NEW Tragedy was preſented at Drury Lane Theatre, Saturday, January 25, under the title of ADELAIDE, wrote by Mr. Pye, the Poet-laureat.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

King Henry, Mr. Aickin; Prince Richard, Mr. Kemble; Prince John, Mr. Barrymore; Clifford, Mr. C. Kemble; Legate, Mr. Cory; Adelaide, Mrs. Siddons; Anna, Miſs Heard.

The fable of the drama is derived from an intereſting period of our hiſtory. Richard, afterward diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Cœur de Lion, had plighted his faith to join in the cruſade for the recovery of the holy land. He was at the ſame time betrothed to Adelaide, ſiſter to Philip, king of France. Adelaide remains under the protection of Henry the Second, king of England, till the nuptials ſhall take place. The marriage had been long delayed, partly becauſe the ſanction of the Roman pontiff was wanting to authorize the ceremony before Richard had performed his vow in the expedition againſt the infidels, and partly becauſe Henry was ſuſpected of being attached to Adelaide himſelf, and of waiting till the death of Eleanor, his queen, ſhould relieve him from matrimonial reſtraints. Richard, deeply enamoured of Adelaide, preſſes for the marriage; but the Roman legate, to whom Henry refers the affair, will not ſuffer it to be ſolemnized till the former ſhall return from the cruſade. John baſely inſinuates ſuſpicions to the prejudice of Adelaide into the mind of his brother, importing that ambition prevailed over love in her heart, and that ſhe was deſirous of ſharing the throne of his father. Richard vehemently reproves Adelaide under this perſuaſion, but at length is convinced by her aſſurances, that ſhe is innocent. John, however, again works upon the feelings of his brother, adviſing him to make a propoſal to Adelaide that they ſhould fly together, to Philip, king of France, her brother, and obtain his aſſiſtance to gain the Engliſh throne. Richard is induced by John, to believe, that her refuſal will be a proof of her deſire to profit by the partiality of Henry. Adelaide, with the pureſt motives, attempts to diſſuade Richard from

the project, but he leaves her in rage, relying upon the inſidious inſtigations of his brother. At length Richard flies, and is followed by John, and they return with hoſtile views againſt their father. Clifford, a natural ſon of Henry by Fair Roſamond, had attempted to fruſtrate the artifices of John, but in vain. Adelaide, to put an end to all the agitations of love, and the uncertainty of her fate, enters into a convent, and Henry, deeply affected by the unnatural conduct of his children, particularly of his favourite John, dies of a broken heart, juſt as Richard returns with an army to ſupport his own pretenſions to the crown, and to obtain his Adelaide, whom he thus unexpectedly finds for ever withheld from him by her religious obligations.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

JANUARY 5.

THE Freedom of the corporation of Youghal, in the county of Cork, has been preſented to the lord lieutenant in a gold box, with the following inſcription:

'The freedom of the corporation of Youghal, preſented to his excellency the marquis Cornwallis, by whoſe talents as a ſtateſman, and abilities as a ſoldier, this kingdom has been preſerved from the wicked projects of a foreign foe and domeſtic traitors. May an union with Great Britain add to the luſtre of his adminiſtration.

W. A. HAYMAN, Mayor,
J. M. JACKSON,
B. S. BALL, Bailiffs.'

At the ſame time the freedom of the ſaid corporation was preſented to lord Caſtlereagh in a ſilver box.

JANUARY 12.

Thurſday, a general court of the proprietors of the bank of England was held, to conſider of the propriety of advancing three millions ſterling to government, for ſix years, without intereſt, in conſideration of the renewal of their charter.

The propoſition was oppoſed principally by Meſſrs. Hoare, Sanſom, and Durant, and ſupported by lord Kinnaird, and Meſſrs. Brandron and Dent.

On the queſtion being put, it was carried in the affirmative without a diviſion.

JANUARY 14.

On Wedneſday laſt, lord Andover, who had been on a viſit at the ſeat of his father-in-law, Mr. Coke, of Norfolk, at Holkham, where a numerous party were paſſing the holidays, on returning from ſhooting, gave his gun to his ſervant; but it was cocked, and went off juſt as his lordſhip had turned his back. The contents lodged in his back below the right ſhoulder; entered the ſpine, and affected the lungs, and on Saturday the unfortunate accident terminated fatally.

JANUARY 15.

Sir Robert Barclay arrived by the laſt cartel from Calais. The unfortunate baronet has been confined above a year in the temple, during five months of which he was cloſely ſhut up *au ſecret*.

Sir Robert owes his happy releaſe to Bonaparte, who ſent for him from the priſon, and, after half an hour's converſation, granted him his freedom immediately, without any reſtriction whatever.

Sir Robert remained in Paris ſince his diſcharge five weeks, ſoliciting from the public offices the reſtoration of his private papers, and the proper paſſports to return to England, during which time, it ſeems, the worthy baronet has been treated by the preſent rulers of France with every mark of diſtinguiſhed favour and kindneſs, as a ſort of *amende honourable* for the treatment he had experienced from the former government of that country.

JANUARY 20.

St. James's, Jan. 18. This day being appointed for the celebration of the anniverſary of the queen's birth-day, there was a very ſplendid and numerous attendance of the nobility, foreign miniſters, and other perſons of diſtinction, to compliment their majeſties upon the occaſion. The guns at the tower were fired at one o'clock. There was a ball at court in the evening, and illuminations and other public demonſtrations of joy in London and Weſtminſter.

JANUARY 23.

Yeſterday, at the Old Bailey, ſentence of death was paſſed upon fifteen priſoners convicted of felony; ſeventeen were ordered to be tranſported for ſeven years, and two for fourteen years; 13 were ordered to be impriſoned in Newgate; 16 in the houſe of correction at Clerkenwell; and four to be publicly and eleven privately whipped. The ſeſſions were adjourned until Wedneſday the 15th of February next.

HIGH PRICE OF BREAD.

An eſpecial court of aldermen was held

on the 10th inſt. on the ſubject of the high price of bread. The lord mayor opened the buſineſs, and ſtated, that he had conſulted the recorder upon this urgent occaſion, whoſe clear opinion was, the act of the 13th of the king, cap. 62, is in full force. The recorder confirmed what had been ſaid by the lord mayor. Alderman Watſon, after a ſhort but appropriate ſpeech, moved two reſolutions:—Firſt, 'That to economize the expenditure of wheaten flour, it is neceſſary to enforce the proviſions of the act of 13 Geo. III, cap. 62. Second, 'That the lord mayor be directed to give the neceſſary directions for an application to the quarter ſeſſions for that purpoſe.' Alderman Skinner ſeconded the motion. He ſaid, that from whatever cauſe the ſcarcity might ariſe, it was their duty to try every experiment to relieve the public. Sir Watkin Lewes ſpoke to the ſame effect. The aldermen Hibbert, Shaw, and other magiſtrates, alſo ſupported the reſolutions, which were carried unanimouſly.—Thanks were then given to the lord mayor for convening the court; and, after ſome other buſineſs, it broke up.

The following is a ſhort abſtract of the act:—It provides 'That no finer bread ſhall be made for ſale, or ſold within this city's juriſdiction, than the ſtandard wheaten bread, for a time to be limited.'

'Sect. 1. From and after the 29th of September 1773, a bread, made of flour of wheat, without any mixture or diviſion, ſhall be the whole produce of the grain, the bran or hull only excepted; and which ſhall weigh three-fourth parts of the wheat whereof it ſhall be made may be at all times allowed to be made, baked, expoſed to, or for ſale, and ſold; and ſhall be called, and underſtood to be ſtandard wheaten bread.

'Sect. 5. If any baker or vender of bread ſhall, after the magiſtrates have given due notice, bake any finer bread of a ſuperior quality, he, ſhe, or they, ſhall be liable to the fine impoſed by the 31ſt Geo. I, for adulterating bread, viz. 40s. for every offence, which may be remitted down to 20s. and no lower.

'Sect. 8. After the 29th of Auguſt, 1773, the juſtices of every county, city, town, liberty, &c. at any general or quarter ſeſſion of the peace, may, if they think proper, prohibit for three months (unleſs they ſee cauſe ſooner to revoke the order, which they are hereby empowered to do) the bakers from making for ſale, baking, or expoſing for ſale, any other or more ſorts, being or purporting to be, of a ſuperior quality, and ſold at a higher price, than the ſtandard wheaten bread aforeſaid.'

On the 14th, the lord mayor, the aldermen Boydell, Watſon, Eamer, and Perchard, with the recorder, opened the quarter ſeſſions.

The bakers company attended.—Mr. Silveſter informed the court, that he was directed by the court of aldermen to move the ſeſſion, that the act of the 13th of his preſent majeſty, cap. 62, which directs, that only one ſpecies of houſehold bread be made, under certain pains and penalties, ſhould now be declared to be put in force.

The recorder conſulted with the magiſtrates, and then addreſſed himſelf to the bakers. 'I am ordered to inform you, that this application from the court of aldermen, being of the higheſt importance to the community at large, as well as to yourſelves, gentlemen, will be taken into the moſt ſerious conſideration on Wedneſday week, at ten o'clock preciſely. If you have, therefore, any counter application, or any objections to make, you will attend on that day, and lay them before the court, and they will be fully conſidered.—A member of the company then replied, 'My lord, it is our higheſt deſire to ſerve the public to the utmoſt of our power; but it will be impoſſible for us by Wedneſday ſe'nnight to alter the whole ſyſtem of our trade—we are very willing to do what can be done; but we cannot encounter with impoſſibilities.'—Mr. Recorder anſwered, 'You miſtake the caſe, gentlemen; if the court does ultimately agree to put the act in force, you have ſtill one whole month to prepare yourſelves; you will, therefore, fairly diſcloſe yourſelves on that day, and every attention will be paid; but you know how dreadfully the middling and lower ranks of the people have ſuffered, and, therefore, the court will go into both caſes together.'

On Thurſday, the 23d, another court of aldermen was ſpecially held at Guildhall, at which were preſent, the lord mayor, and 15 aldermen, for the purpoſe of conferring with the company of bakers, on the ſubject of the making ſtandard wheaten bread, in conſequence of the arguments uſed by their counſel on Wedneſday at the ſeſſions. A number of gentlemen attended to give their opinion on the ſubject; and as the legiſlature have directed a ſelect committee to take all the acts of parliament for making of bread into conſideration, the court came to a reſolution to requeſt the magiſtrates at the ſeſſions to poſtpone any further proceedings until Wedneſday, the 29th of January,

BIRTHS.

COUNTESS of Mansfield, of a daughter.

Right hon. lady Sondes, of a ſon.

Right hon. lady Charlotte Baillie, of a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

THE hon. Suſan Charteris, daughter of the right hon. lord Elcho, to lieutenant-colonel Henry Clinton, of the firſt regiment of foot guards.

George Jerningham, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir William Jerningham, bart. of Coſſeyhall, Norfolk, to miſs Frances Sulyard, of Haughley-park, Suffolk.

Sir James Smith, bart. of Sydlinghouſe, in Dorſetſhire, to miſs Morland, of Court Lodge, in Kent.

Rev. Robert Moore, third ſon of his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury, to miſs Bell, daughter of the late Matthew Bell, eſq. of Wolſington, Northumberland.

DEATHS.

LADY Mackworth.

Thomas Fitzhugh, eſq. of Portland-place.

Right hon. William Vaughan, of Liſburne, Ireland.

Miſs Fitzpatrick, daughter of the hon. Richard Fitzpatrick.

Field-marſhal Knobelſdorf, at Berlin.

Lord Teynham.

Sir William Muſgrave, bart.

Hugh Valence Jones, eſq. comptroller-general of the cuſtoms.

Lord Andover, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Suffolk.

Sir Paul Pechell, bart.

Lieutenant-colonel Duncan Campbell.

William Brownrigg, eſq. F. R. S.

George Steevens, eſq. a diſtinguiſhed commentator on Shakſpeare.

Right hon. lady Eliſabeth Worſley.

Dr. William Newcombe, archbiſhop of Armagh.

Dr. Warner, of St. John's-ſquare.

PROMOTIONS.

GENERAL Charles Stuart—knight of the Bath.

Vice-admiral Henry Harvey—knight of the Bath.

Vice-admiral Andrew Mitchell—knight of the Bath.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

DECEMBER 28.

SILVESTER, otherwiſe Silvan Fowle, Weſt Rainham, Norfolk, miller.

Tobias Appleyard, Leeds, Yorkſhire, common brewer.

Peter Hill, Piccadilly, upholſterer.

DECEMBER 31.

Thomas Denton, Haycroft, Yorkſhire, dealer.

Humphrey Ruff, Worceſter, glover.

JANUARY 4.

William Collier, Reading, Berkſhire, carpenter.

JANUARY 7.

John Woolley, Romford, Eſſex, ſadler.

JANUARY 11.

Abraham Mendes Pereira, and Hermenegild Caſtellain, Old Bethlem, merchants.

Foy Walford, Mancheſter, muſlin-manufacturer.

Thomas Shivers, Nicholas-lane, merchant.

John Pully Edwards and William Purl, Red-lion-ſtreet, Southwark, cornfactors.

William Preſton Graham, Bread-ſtreet, Cheapſide, merchant.

JANUARY 14.

Theophilus Bridges, Colcheſter, Eſſex, innkeeper.

William Glover and Richard Williams, Bangor, Carnarvon, dealers.

Jonathan Smith, Fore-ſtreet, goldbeater.

JANUARY 18.

William Wilkinſon, Walworth, Surry, victualler.

John Sugden, and William Gamble, Liverpool, merchants.

James Douglas, New-ſtreet, Brompton, coal-merchant.

JANUARY 21.

John Long, Portſea, Hants, mariner.

Lawrence Croft, St. James's-ſtreet, paſtry-cook.

John Groom, Chiſwell-ſtreet, ſtaple-keeper.

Andrew Paul Pourſales, and Andrew George Pourtales, Broad ſtreet-buildings, merchants.

John M'Ilwham, Fore-ſtreet, Moorfields, builder.

John Kirkman, Kirkdale, Lancaſhire, merchant.

Lewis Goldſmith, Thavies-inn, Holborn, merchant.

JANUARY 25.

William Clementſon, Noble-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

Vaughan Griffiths, Paternoſter-row, Cheapſide, printer.

Thomas White, Paſton, in Norfolk, miller.

Thomas Turner, Greville-ſtreet, Hatton-garden, ironmonger.

Armand Le Lievre, Finch-lane, merchant.

James Kenyon, Liverpool, merchant.

Joſeph Cooper, Wild-court, St. Giles in the fields, printer.

Thomas Burgis, Great Tey, in Eſſex, gardener.

Richard Howell, Pancraſs-lane, Cheapſide, warehouſeman.

George Hilder, Bocking, Eſſex, ſhopkeeper.

Amelia Finlay, Caſtle-ſtreet, Oxford-road, linen-draper.

Reubin Allen, High Wycomb, Bucks, carrier.

Thomas Edwards, Fore-ſtreet, Lime-houſe, victualler.

John Burford, Holborn-bridge, linen-draper.

John Fritch, Elbow-lane, Dowgate-hill, wine-merchant.

John Merrick, and Samuel Hoſkins, Mark-lane, merchant.

William Sweatman, Briſtol, linen-draper.

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Salop	100	8	57	3	47	8	30	7
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Worceſter	104	10	58	8	45	5	39	7
Warwick	104	11	——		51	8	40	9
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Norfolk	89	2	61	0	37	4	32	11
Lincoln	79	10	——		36	10	25	6
York	79	8	58	10	39	0	29	3
Durham	84	0	75	10	48	9	28	5
Northumberland	79	2	69	5	42	5	30	10
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Somerſet	104	7	——		47	10	30	8
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31	155	61 ⅞	63⅛a63	76 ⅞		90 ⅜	17 ⅝	5 ¼		59 ⅝			15 15 6	
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2		62 ⅛	63⅜a61½	77		90 ⅜	17 ¾	5 ⅞		59 ⅞			15 15 6	
3	154	61 ⅛	63⅜a61⅞	76 ⅞		90 ½	17 ½	5 ¾		59 ¼	11 ⅛		15 16 6	
4		61 ⅛	62⅝a61¼	76 ¾			17 ½	5 ¾						
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8	154 ½	61 ⅛	61⅞a62⅛	76 ⅝		90 ½	17 ⅝	5 ¾	197 ¼	59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 0 0	
9	154 ½	61 ⅛	62¼a63	76 ⅝		91	17 ⅝			59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 0 6	
10	156 ¼	62 ⅛	62⅝a62⅞	76 ⅞		91 ⅛	17 ¾	5 ¾	199	59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 1 6	
11		61 ⅝	62½a¼	76 ⅞		91	17 ⅝	5 ¾		59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 2 0	
13		61 ⅝	62¼a⅛	76 ⅝		91	17 ⅝	5 ¾		59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 2 0	
14	155	61 ¼	62⅛a¼	76 ⅞		90 ¾	17 ⅝			59 ¼	11 ¼		16 2 6	
15	155 ⅛	61 ¼	62a62¼	77		90 ⅞	17 ¾	5 ¾	199	59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 4 6	
16	155 ⅛	61 ¼	62¼a⅞	77 ¼		91 ½	17 ¾	5 ¾	199	59 ⅛	11 ¼		16 5 6	
17	156 ½	61 ⅜	62⅛a63	77 ⅜		92	17 ⅞	5 ⅞		60 ⅛	11 ½		16 5 6	
18														
20		62 ⅝	63¼a63	78 ¼		92 ⅝	18	6	201	61	11 ¼	1s. pre.	16 6 0	
21	157	62	63⅜a62⅞	78 ¼		92 ⅝	17 ⅞	5 ⅞	195 ¼	60 ⅛	11 ⅜	par	16 7 0	
22	157	61 ⅞	62¼a62⅞	78	91 ⅛	91 ⅜	17 ¾	5 ⅞	193 ¾	60	11 ⅜	par	16 7 6	
23	157	61 ½	62⅝a⅞	78	90 ⅞	91 ⅜	17 ¾	5 ⅞	195	59 ⅝	11 ⅜	1s. pre.	16 7 6	
24	156 ¾	61 ⅝	60¼a61	77 ⅞	90 ⅞	91 ½	17 ¾	5 ⅞		59 ¼		1	16 7 6	
25														
27	154 ⅛	61 ⅛	60⅛a¼	77 ⅝	90 ¾	91 ⅛	17 ¾	5 ⅞		59 ½	11 ⅛	1	16 7 6	
28	155 ¾	61 ⅛	60⅝a⅝	77 ¾	90 ¾	91	17 ¼	5 ⅞		59 ½	11 ⅛	1	16 7 6	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.